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INSIDE MENTOR:
A PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

by

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A THESIS

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Don Massey

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Date October 12, 1982

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe the development process involved in the Mentor Project, an in-service program.

The researcher was a member of the development committee and participant observation was the methodology used.

Analysis of data was loosely based on Decker Walker's "naturalistic model," which postulates three stages to the development process. These are platform, deliberation, and design.

The platform of the Mentor Project was drawn from the Proposal submitted by the developers to an ad hoc advisory committee. Implicit within the Proposal was a view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies. These, along with explicit statements concerning the shape of the intended program, the results of surveys of teacher needs, the recent research on in-service, and certain practical restraints listed in the Proposal, were used to paint a picture of the Mentor Program, as the developers envisioned it.

Walker's four deliberative episodes, called issue, explication, brainstorm, and report, were identified in the transcripts obtained from tapes of the Mentor development committee meetings. Four other episodes

were identified as well. These episodes were concerned more with preparation for deliberation, than with deliberation itself. They were called organization, presentation, update, and invention.

Another aspect of deliberation emerged. This aspect was categorized according to Berger's (1969) plausibility structures--legitimations, appeals to significant others, and nihilism. These plausibility structures were used in two ways by the developers. Legitimations and appeals to significant others were used to justify their decisions. Nihilism was used as a way to release tension and as a means of increasing group cohesiveness.

The design was analyzed in two steps. The first step involved a categorization of the major decisions according to whether they were implicit or explicit and a delineation of the circumstances or principles which were used to justify each decision. Circumstances were used far more than principles as a justification for decisions.

The second step involved an analysis of the design, using the same categories applied to the platform. It was found that much of what had been envisioned by the developers was lost during the development process.

Implications in two areas were drawn from the findings of this study. Implications for practice were outlined in the hope that others involved in the development of educational programs might benefit from the experience of one such committee. Implications for research were drawn as an encouragement to other researchers to add to the available data concerning development processes, in order that we may eventually make informed decisions as to how we might best engage in program development tasks.

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Finally, I wish to acknowledge the members of the Mentor development committee. Without their willingness to allow their deliberations to be made public, this study would not have been carred out.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

This study was an attempt to represent the decision-making processes involved in the development of an educational program.

The study arose from the need for description of the ways in which educational programs are actually developed to provide a balance to the texts which purport to tell us how they should be developed. It was an attempt to link the practical with the theoretical.

The educational program upon which this study focussed is called the Mentor Project. It is an in-service program for teachers of grades one to twelve, designed to assist in the implementation of the *1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum*, through the promotion of teacher competence in a number of specific teaching strategies.

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study arises from its stated purpose of adding to the limited information available in the area of the decision-making processes of committees engaged in the task of developing educational programs.

> the recovery and report of deliberations and of tactical judgments constitute a labor of great importance . . . . When such reports concern education, which is to say, when they concern the decisions and actions by which we determine preparations for the living of human lives, such a work is of special importance. (Schwab, 1975, p. viii)

Statement of the Problem

The following questions define the problem of this study. The major question was:

How is an in-service program developed?

Within this question are the following subquestions:

a. Upon what basis did the development committee begin its work?

b. What were the components of the curriculum building process?

c. How were decisions made during the development process?

d. Were the products created by the development committee congruent with the basis from which they began their work?

Need for the Study

Need for Case Studies

William Blake once said, "To generalize is to be an idiot. To particularize is the alone distinction of merit" (1808, pp. xcii-xciii).

Most would not carry things to this extreme, but educational researchers recognize the important contribution which knowledge of the particular has to make to the educational scene (Stake, 1978; Spradley, 1979).

Spindler and Spindler (1973), in their Foreward to Wolcott's ethnography of an elementary school principal, have this to say concerning the importance of that piece of work as a case study.

> It is not intended to be a study of a wholly typical elementary school because there is no such thing. It is a study centering on a school in a not atypical suburban district in a not atypical city of the Pacific Northwest. The reader who understands what Ed Bell, the principal in this school, does from hour to hour and day to day as he moves about the school and in the community will understand how the principal acts in thousands of elementary schools in the United States. But there are yet other thousands of such schools to which this case study will be necessarily tangential. This is as it must always be with case studies. Nevertheless, it is only through a case study in depth of this kind that the dynamics of the system and the interactions of people within it can be seen in their functional totality. (Spindler & Spindler, 1973, p. viii)

The case study, by its concern with analysis of the "idiosyncratic," (Stake, 1978, p. 7) develops intensive knowledge of the particular, which can then be recognized in new and different contexts. This involves the development of what Stake calls "naturalistic generalizations."

> Naturalistic generalizations develop within a person as a product of experience. They derive from the tacit knowledge of how things are, why they are, how people feel about them, and how these things are likely to be later or in other places with which this person is familiar. They seldom take the form of predictions but lead regularly to expectation. They guide action, in fact they are inseparable from action. (1978, p. 6)

Need for Naturalistic Studies of Program Development

> Process knowledge is as important as product knowledge, although the two are separate classes of information. People were able to tinker up flying machines, but knowledge of why they flew was necessary for the emergence of the science of aerodynamics and the development of the great flying machines of today. (Cooley & Lohnes, 1976, p. 171)

There has been increased attention of late to the need for process knowledge in the area of decision-making.

> Unless we understand what people are included in the process to provide information, what people give advice, what people are involved in discussions of a given decision, and the sequence of the interactions and activities leading up to the decision, our literature in the field of decision making will continue to be a mixture of fact and folklore. (Whyte, 1969, p. 702)

The curriculum literature, during the past fifteen years, has contained numerous calls for more descriptive studies of the way in which educational programs are developed--the interactions involved, the conflicts encountered, the influences on, the constraints, and the sources of information used, in the decision-making process.

Abramson (1966) referred to "the continuing paucity of studies which can serve as models for curriculum research" (p. 388).

Maguire noted that

> a great service can be done for the technologies of curriculum development and evaluation by those individuals who are intimately involved at the policy making level of curriculum development if

> they would take the time to write down descriptions of their activities, the kinds of decisions that they make, the kinds of information upon which they base their decisions, the kinds of conflicts that arise within the initiator group and how these conflicts are resolved, etc. (1969, p. 19)

Eisner, in 1971, referred to the ways in which curricula are developed and implemented as "an unstudied problem" (p. 6). He pointed out that with the exception of four studies[1] "no attempt has been made . . . to systematically study the way in which curricula are actually made by curriculum development groups" (p. 6). Yet he saw this task as "one of the primary boulders from which the building blocks of the field of curriculum can be cut" (p. 6).

In the decade following Eisner's comment, others have echoed his thoughts.

Schwab, in a Foreward to Reid and Walker's Case Studies in Curriculum Change, called for studies on the deliberations involved in curriculum development projects. He lamented the neglect of the areas of deliberation and tactic in such projects. The problem as he saw it, stemmed from the

> virtual absence of record and the impossibility of a verifying repetition. In theoretical works, whether esthetic, ethical or scientific, the argument is presented for all to read. The experiment can be repeated. But deliberative and tactical work take place by word of mouth behind closed doors (even behind the closed door of a single mind) and they deal with the unique event. (1975, p. viii)

---

[1] Eisner was referring to McClure (1965); Walker (1969); Hurd (1961); and Wooten (1965).

Silverblank has pointed out that "the study of the communication process as it occurs in curriculum projects would yield useful knowledge about the processes by which people influence each other--decision-making and non-decision-making--which, in essence is the heart of the matter in any curriculum project" (1979, p. 417).

Reid has said that "until recently, astonishingly little effort has been directed towards discovering how curriculum problems are tackled" (1978, p. 32). He has called for "more studies . . . that take actual working groups and look at them in terms of unique features of the curriculum tasks they have to carry out" (1979, p. 207).

Walker (1973) has pointed out that between 1971 and 1973 the Review of Educational Research contained only one article reviewing research in curriculum. He has suggested a number of reasons for the lack of research in this area.

"We have believed that we must study only overt behaviour" (p. 64). According to Walker, we have avoided introspective accounts, believing that nothing but behaviour is observable. This belief has been based on a misconception that observations can be made which are not influenced by expectations and preconceptions.

"We have believed that research must be entirely a matter of verification and proof" (p. 65). He explained that, in order to test something, there must first be something to test. This 'something' can only be obtained from a "substructure of ideas and concepts" (p. 66) which the field of curriculum lacks. In order to develop this substructure we need to conduct research in a context of discovery and verification rather than prematurely jumping to a context of verification and proof.

"We have believed that human judgments are unreliable, and therefore not fit objects for empirical research" (p. 66). When studying curriculum development, we observe people making judgments about the value of certain topics or activities or objectives. By studying these judgments as valuable data, we throw additional light on the development process. Walker says,

> To think that we can study curriculum planning without reference to such judgments is like believing that it is possible to study piano playing without reference to any "arbitrary" human standards of performance. What it means to play a piano well is in large part a matter of human preference. To think of these preferences as inadequate, judgmental indicators of some more objective criterion is a mistake. (p. 66)

"We have believed that empirical research (at its best) means searching for isolated causes or cause-effect relations" (p. 67). Curriculum research is not necessarily amenable to isolation of particular cause-effect relationships. One isolated event does not cause another isolated event. Rather, they are both part of a complex number of interrelated events. It is more appropriate to speak of "consequences, determinants, and influences rather than effects and results" (p. 68).

"We have believed that we must control our phenomena in order to study them scientifically" (p. 68). Walker makes the point here that a prerequisite to studying phenomena under controlled conditions is knowledge about the terms on which the phenomenon will admit of being studied. Since we do not yet possess this background knowledge in relation to curricular phenomena, we need to use relatively uncontrolled approaches to studying them.

"We have believed that we must study one small thing at a time" (p. 69). If educational policies and practices are to be based on research rather than intuitition, we need to develop a tradition of integrative research which will not stand in isolation, but rather, will complement the work done in other disciplines.

There have been numerous calls for descriptive studies of the decision-making processes of development committees. This study will look closely at the processes involved in the development of an educational program by one such committee.

Theoretical Framework

As an alternative to the prescriptive Tylerian model of curriculum development, Walker has outlined a "naturalistic model" (1971), based on participant observation of the Kettering Project and written reports or tapes of several other projects, including the School Mathematics Study Group, discussed previously. He has proposed this model as a possible conceptual framework for describing other curriculum development projects (1969; 1970; 1971; 1971; 1975).

This "naturalistic" model grew out of his observations of how curriculum development actually occurs. It is a descriptive rather than a prescriptive model. The primary difference between this model and the classical one is in the roles assigned to objectives and evaluation.

> This model is basically a temporal one: it postulates a beginning (the platform), an end (the design), and a process (deliberation) by means of which the beginning progresses to the end. In contrast, the classical model is a means-end model: it postulates a desired end (the objective), a means for attaining this end (the learning experience), and a process (evaluation) for determining whether the means does indeed bring about the end. (1971, pp. 58-59)

The platform is the set of relevant beliefs and values which the developers hold and which influence the process of building the program.

> A curriculum developer uses his platform to construct a curriculum in much the same way an anthropologist uses his beliefs and assumptions about human anatomy, past and present, to construct a skull from a few pieces of bone. Neither can work without a platform, for his platform tells him what to look for and what to expect as his final product. (1970, p. 3)

Deliberation is the second phase of the development process. It is the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions.

"The animating principle in curriculum deliberation is the desire for defensibility, for justifiability of decisions" (1971, pp. 54-55). Frequently, decisions can be justified on the basis of the project's platform, the assumptions which are already accepted.

However, there are times when appeal to the platform is inadequate because all the alternatives under consideration are consistent with the platform, because none are, or because there is not enough information at hand to determine whether or not they are consistent with the platform. The developers will then seek out data, any information which can provide empirical confirmation of the platform.

The design "like an automobile's design, is the set of abstract relationships embodied in the designed object" (1971, p. 53). Walker suggests that the design be presented schematically, by means of the series of decisions that produced it.

> A curriculum's design would then be represented by the choices that enter into its creation. Just as an experienced architect could construct a model of a building from a complete record of the decisions made by the building's designer as well as from a set of blueprints, so a curriculum developer could substantially reconstruct a project's curriculum plan and materials from a record of the choices they made. (1971, p. 53)

The "naturalistic model" would seem to provide a viable schema for analysis of the Mentor project for these reasons:

1. The Mentor project involved the development, by a committee, of an educational program, a "curriculum" for teachers as students, in the sense in which Walker speaks of a "curriculum" for children as students.

2. It is a process model, which accommodates changes that occur over time.

However, there were certain social aspects of the dynamics of the development process in Mentor which did not seem to be contained within this model. For this reason, an additional means of analysis has been added to the deliberation section of the schema.

Berger's "plausibility structures" have been applied to these aspects of the verbal discourse. Berger (1969) points out that "one of the fundamental propositions of the sociology of knowledge is that the plausibility, in the sense of what people actually find credible, of views of reality depends upon the social support these receive" (pp. 42-43).

Werner (1977) has outlined these plausibility structures in detail. Three of these were applied to the Mentor discourse. Legitimizations (called "legitimations" by Berger) are "explanations, justifications, and theories in support of the conceptions in question" (Berger, 1969, p. 43). Nihilism involves methods whereby "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115). Appeals to significant others refers to the use of experts "to lend support and authority to the position taken by program developers" (Werner, 1977, p. 106).

These plausibility structures accounted for aspects of the discourse which were not strictly deliberation and yet were a definite part of the processes involved in the development of Mentor.

Methodology

Given the types of data necessary to a study of the decision-making processes of a development committee, and the researcher's position as a member of such a committee, participant observation was considered to be the most appropriate choice of methodology.

According to Henderson (1978), the term "participant observation" was first coined by Lindeman (1924). In the sense in which Lindeman used the term, "participant observers" were people who reported on a group to which they already belonged. McCall and Simmons (1969) point out that the term is still sometimes reserved "for the techniques in which the scientist virtually performs the role of a genuine member and counts as very critical data his resulting subjective experiences, which provide leads to be pursued by interviewing his fellow participants" (p. 1).

However, a participant observer is commonly considered to be a person who joins a group in order to observe it and who does not necessarily perform the role of a genuine member (Henderson, 1978; McCall & Simmons, 1969).

"Participant observation" is employed in this study in the original sense of the word. The researcher was already a group member when the study began and continued to perform all of the functions of a group member while the study was being carried out.

Participant observation is an approach uniquely suitable to the study of process, of change over time. According to Smith (1975), a

> key advantage of field research is . . . its ability to shed light on processes or dynamics of social situations. That is, field research data can be gathered over long periods of time for many variables. Other methods rarely approach this adaptability to the study of social dynamics. For instance, structured observations may be gathered over long time periods but usually for only one or a few variables. Surveys, on the other hand, can be used to collect data on a large number of variables but are generally impractical for reuse on the same populations more than a few times. (p. 230)

As Shipman said, in describing his study of a curriculum project, "it was not a single photograph, but a jigsaw built up over time. Each piece could be fitted into the total picture" (1974, p. 181).

A second advantage of participant observation is that it affords the opportunity for first-hand observation of people in their natural settings. The researcher has the opportunity to observe people as they really are, and not as they represent themselves on a questionnaire, in an interview, or during a laboratory situation.

Whyte discusses this point.

> If you are going to be interviewed for the newspaper, you put on your good suit and your best tie, make sure that the kitchen dishes are cleaned up, and in general take all the steps you associate with making a public appearance. You appear before the public in the role that you would like to play before the public. You cannot do this with a social researcher who comes in and lives with you. (1955, p. 349)

A third advantage is that various data gathering methods can be used as they are deemed to be appropriate. As Williamson et al. point out

> unobtrusive measurement, life history studies, documentary and historical analysis, statistical enumeration, indepth interviewing, imaginative role-taking, and personal introspection are all important complements of direct observation in the field worker's repertoire (1977, p. 200).

Participant observation, then, is particularly appropriate to a study of the development of an educational program because of the unique opportunity which it affords to observe the dynamics of group processes over time and *in situ*, and the adaptability of its methods to the changing requirements of the research.

Definitions

In this study the terms "curriculum" and "program" are used interchangeably. They are defined as a plan for the education of learners.

Curriculum development refers to procedures for constructing a curriculum.

A development committee is a group working together to construct a curriculum.

In-service is any activity that "contributes to a sharing of ideas among teachers, an improvement in the professional or personal knowledge and skills of a teacher, or the installation of an innovation in a school's program" (Young, 1979, p. 1).

Limitations

1. There was no attempt to represent the perspectives of the various stakeholders in the project.

Being a member of the Mentor development committee has proved to be a most valuable learning experience for this writer. One of the most important learnings was that people do, indeed, bring varying perspectives to a project. This is certainly described in the literature.[2] However, it was only through the experience of being a developer of Mentor that this truth became apparent to the writer.

This thesis has been written from one perspective, that of a developer. No attempt has been made to look through the spectacles of other participants in the process. A most fascinating thesis could have been written by someone who had acted as an observer and interviewer of all the parties involved, in the spirit of Shipman (1974) who observed and interviewed members of the project team, teachers, local authority advisers, and the Schools Council, in his sociological study of the establishment and implementation of a curriculum project.

---

[2] Some who make this point are Shaw, K. E. Negotiating curriculum change in a college of education. In W. A. Reid & D. F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change: Great Britain and the United States. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1975; Shipman, M. D. Inside a curriculum project: A case study in the process of curriculum change. London: Methuen & Co., 1974; and Wooten, W. SMSG: The making of a curriculum. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1965.

At the time the proposal for this research was written (March, 1980), this writer was not even aware (in an internalized sense) that there were radically different perspectives on the project. Later, when this came to light some consideration was given to changing direction and exploring this area. This idea was rejected for two reasons.

First, it was decided that it would be too difficult to put down the "conceptual baggage" which had been picked up, and would continue to be picked up, from the experience of being a developer (unless, of course, the role of developer was dropped).

Second, this change of focus would have meant ignoring a singular opportunity to explore the development process from the perspective of an "insider," as a member of a development team. It was decided that this was too unique an opportunity to miss.

Other participants in the process, i.e., individuals from Alberta Education, ACCESS, the ad hoc advisory committee, and pilot teachers may wish to take issue with statements made here. This writer can only emphasize and reiterate that this is the way it was to a developer.

2. This is not an evaluation of the effectiveness of the Mentor Project as a vehicle for in-servicing teachers in

social studies. That is material for another thesis.

Organization of the Thesis

The first chapter of this thesis has had several intents. The problem has been stated. The need for the study and, hence, its significance, were demonstrated by means of a discussion of the dearth of information available concerning the decision-making processes of committees engaged in the task of developing educational programs. The numerous calls in the literature for research work of this kind have been pointed out. Finally, the theoretical framework was briefly described and a rationale for the use of participant observation as a means of carrying out this type of study was provided.

Chapter II involves an examination of pertinent literature and research in four areas: program development, in-service education, implementation practices for social studies curricula in Alberta during the period from 1971 to 1981, and opportunistic research. The research on program development is an attempt to review studies carried out to date and to show what we now know about the development of educational programs. The research on in-service education has been examined with the purpose of providing a context for the Mentor program within the state-of-the-art findings regarding what seems to make an effective in-service program. The review of implementation practices for social studies curricula in the province of Alberta from 1971-1981 has been included to provide a broader picture of where Mentor fits within the context of social studies education in Alberta at the present time. The review of opportunistic research provides a rationale for the use of such an approach in this study.

Chapter III describes the methodology used in this study, against a background of other participant observation research.

Chapter IV involves a description and analysis of the development process involved in the Mentor Program, through application of a modified form of Decker Walker's naturalistic model of curriculum development to the Mentor data.

In the final chapter, the study is summarized, conclusions are reached, and implications for practice and for future research are drawn.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Introduction

This review is divided into four sections. The first section is a review of current research related to program development. The intent of the review is to place this study against a background of previous research in this area. Two major conclusions regarding program development are drawn from the studies reviewed.

The second section is concerned with a review of current research findings related to effective in-service practice. There has been a great deal of research in this area since the mid 1970's. The Mentor developers, as members of a university education faculty, would be expected to be cognizant of this research. It is also stated in their Proposal that "the implications of recent research on in-service efforts" (p. 2) were taken into consideration in determining the shape of the proposed program. Therefore the major research findings will be considered to be part of the Mentor platform.

The third section is a review of implementation practices in relation to social studies curricula in Alberta during the period from 1971 to 1981. Specifically, the discussion concerns itself with implementation practices connected with the 1971, 1978, and 1981 social studies curricula and events surrounding these implementation practices. The Mentor Program, when first conceived, was intended to serve as an implementation tool for the 1978 interim social studies curriculum. However, since this curriculum was not in place as long as was expected, it will become a means of assisting in the implementation of the 1981 social studies curriculum instead. This review, then, serves to place Mentor in the context of implementation practices for Alberta social studies curricula in the 1970's and early 1980's.

Section four reviews opportunistic research studies and discusses some of their advantages. It is intended to provide a rationale for the use of such an approach in this study.

Studies of Program Development

Vickers (1965) looked at decision-making at the national level and defined five, not necessarily sequential stages. These were appreciation - how the problem is to be defined; reality judgment - what the relevant facts are; value judgment - what solutions would be acceptable, generation of alternatives - what might be done; and proposals - what should be done.

Appreciation involves a clear conception of the problem. According to Vickers, if we too readily assume that we know what the problem is, we may attempt to find answers for the wrong problem, wasting time and resources. The problem emerges over time. It can only do so through the participation of a variety of people having a range of expertise and viewpoints.

Reality judgments involve a decision concerning which, of all the available information, is pertinent. It is complicated by the fact that some information may be in dispute.

Value judgments are concerned with the benefits or disadvantages of possible actions. Based on these value judgments, alternative plans of action are generated, from which one plan is chosen.

Schwab (1973) applied practical reasoning to the process of deliberation in small groups. He, like Vickers, argues that groups, not individuals, must undertake curriculum decision-making because of the types of expertise and experience that are essential components of the process. The five sources of expertise which he suggests are: discipline(s), learners, milieus, teachers, and curriculum making. The group should consist of ten or twelve people, according to Schwab, so that the sources of expertise can all be well represented without creating a group so big that it becomes too formal.

Wooten (1965) was one of the first to provide a case-history of a curriculum development project. He described the activities and modus operandi of SMSG (School Mathematics Study Group) over a four-year period in which it developed mathematics textbooks for use in Grades 7-12.

SMSG was one of the many curriculum projects which emerged during the heyday of federal funding for curriculum development in the U.S., extending from the mid-fifties to the late sixties (Post-Sputnik era).

Wooten gives an account of the creation of the SMSG, its overall organization, and the physical setting where its work was carried out. He describes the procedures employed by the writing teams, the accomplishments of each team by the end of each summer writing session, and the behind-the-scenes organizational practices; i.e., hiring of typists, setting up accommodation, trying to meet unexpectedly high demands for sample texts, etc.

What Wooten does not provide is an analysis of interactions between individuals, decisions that were made, etc.

However, it is evident that the SMSG writing groups were not always in complete agreement on how to carry out their objectives, or on the objectives themselves. Agreement had to be reached through discussion and negotiation.

> Although a considerable overlap of these viewpoints exists among the members of such a group, there are many areas of disagreement . . . . these areas had to be clearly delineated before any serious attempt at writing could begin. (Wooten, 1965, p. 25)

Wooten does not make clear what, if any, connection he himself, had to the project. However, he apparently was not present during the curriculum development process. Hence, observation is not mentioned as a means of gathering data. Data was obtained by means of document analysis and interviewing, or obtaining written descriptions, from key informants, namely, individuals in charge of subgroups.

Not having transcripts of tapes of meetings of writing teams, he could not provide reports concerning deliberations and tactical judgments "to provide us with ground for testing our views of what constitutes better and worse in these critically important arts" (Schwab, 1975, p. viii). Instead he has provided a narrative, surface level account of the development process. He describes his purpose as follows:

> This book is addressed to any person, mathematically trained or otherwise, with a curiosity about how a group such as SMSG undertakes to influence the curriculum of the schools of the United States. (1967, p. vi)

Wooten, then, viewed his case-study of a particular curriculum project as a means of helping the reader to draw inferences about other projects. This particular project was representative of many others. Characteristics common to such federally funded projects were collaboration of teachers and subject-matter specialists; the major goal of modification of the existing school curriculum in the subject area of concern; and the production of textbooks or other materials for classroom use.[3]

More recently, some studies have been done which have attempted to meet Schwab's (1975) call for research into deliberation and tactic in curriculum development projects.

Retrospective analysis, defined as "an analysis of some portion of a curriculum development project by a member of the project after the project has ended" (Wise and Peshkin, 1977, p. 172), is one approach to looking at curriculum deliberations. Wise, Singer, Altschuld, and Berk presented papers at a symposium of the 1977 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in support of this approach.

Wise and Berk presented discussion papers on the use of this approach; while Singer and Altschuld's presentations actually used the technique to describe a curriculum development project in which they were involved as director and assistant director. Singer, in "A Retrospective Analysis of the Development of Program Criteria," describes the major phases of deliberation, issues that arose during the deliberations, and the tactics used during the course of developing a set of product criteria to serve as guidelines for materials development. Altschuld, in "A Retrospective Analysis of the Development of a Project Monitoring System," describes the deliberations involved in the design of a procedure for quality-control of the materials developed. He also deals with the issues that arose and the effects of the quality-control procedures on subsequent project deliberation.

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[3] For reports of similar projects, see Ridgeway (1969) and Hurd (1961).

Shaw (1975) described the process of curriculum development, at the policy-making level, in an English college of teacher education. He used interviewing and attendance at meetings over a three year period to observe how decisions were made with regard to a major curriculum innovation (the change from a secondary school to a primary school teacher education orientation).

Shaw emphasized that negotiation is the basis of curriculum decision-making. Hence, managerial tasks should focus on facilitating and guiding the negotiation process, in order that it can become more effective.

Individuals and interests groups did not readily commit themselves to major policy statements. This is because objectives and preferences were never immediately known. They emerged over time, as information was received and processed. Often, this information was obtained by means of digressive and not obviously decision-oriented discussion.

This mode of decision-making is due, not to a lack of sophistication or knowledge on the part of participants, but to the inherent nature of the curriculum decision-making situation. Within the group is a system of human relationships which must, in the process of decision-making on desired ends and available means, make adjustments both within itself and with the wider social and political environment. At the same time, consensus must be preserved and the decision-making machinery maintained.

Ledgerwood (1975) conceptualized, on the basis of the theoretical literature and an empirical case study of a curriculum committee, three ideal styles of curriculum decision-making - hierarchical, mutualistic, and autonomous.

In so doing, he drew attention to the fact that curriculum decision-making can be viewed from alternative perspectives. His purpose was also to provide decision-makers with the tools to consider the choices available to them before beginning a project and to analyze their decision-making during and following the project.

Walker (1969; 1970; 1971; 1971; 1971; 1975) has outlined a "naturalistic model" based on the written reports of projects such as the School Mathematics Study Group, participant observation of an art education project at Stanford, and tape recordings of this project and two science curriculum projects.

Walker has made several major contributions to our knowledge concerning curriculum development.

His naturalistic model provides a schematic method of organizing a record of the life of a curriculum development project. He has postulated three stages. These are Platform, Deliberation, and Design.

Secondly, he has shown that meaningful patterns can be determined from complex and apparently chaotic discourse. He was one of the first to devise a system for analyzing the deliberations of curriculum development committees. He used independent judges to break the transcripts into what he called "deliberative episodes," which were macroscopic units of analysis. A microscopic level of analysis was then used to break several of the episodes down into smaller units.

Thirdly, he has shown that curriculum development projects do not necessarily begin with a statement of objectives. Rather, the objectives emerge from deliberation. As a result of his work he has stated that "I think it most important to try to explode the widely believed myth that all curriculum development should begin with objectives and work in a formal and systematic way toward the creation and evaluation of plans and materials" (1975, p. 133).

In his book, Inside a Curriculum Project (1974), and in various articles, M. D. Shipman has provided a fascinating account of the findings of his research into the Schools Council Integrated Studies Project, organized from the University of Keele between 1968 and 1971. Shipman investigated both the development of the project and its implementation in trial schools. He viewed his work as an attempt to "link the anecdotal accounts of those who have to solve practical problems of innovation with the specualations of curriculum theorists" (1972, p. 145). He, too, failed to find evidence of setting out of clear objectives at the outset of the project, but rather, "the progressive emergence of a definition" (p. 147).

> Curriculum development does not proceed through a clear cycle from a statement of objectives to an evaluation of the learning strategies used. It consists of interaction, accommodation and compromise. Horse trading and horse sense are the concrete curriculum scene, not the clinical alignment of means with ends that is the official version. (1972, p. 147)[4]

Another major conclusion of Shipman's study was that there are contrasting definitions of a curriculum project, each of which is a reflection of a legitimate position. This position emerged from the context in which each party worked. For instance, teachers defined the project differently than did the project team. The team saw the project as a "co-operative exercise in exploring the problems and possibilities of integration in the Humanities.

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[4] For an official version of this project, see Caston (1971).

It was to be an invitation to schools to join in an experiment, not to try out a new syllabus" (p. 148).

However, the teachers' perspective was "of a project to be used to develop tailor-made courses for their school rather than of a trial of new content and methods for possible diffusion elsewhere" (p. 148). Similarly, other parties defined the project according to the context in which they worked.

Shipman concludes that "the curriculum scene is a busy market place where bargains are struck between parties who interpret the contract through their particular circumstances" (1972, p. 152).

Little work has been done as far as examining the decision-making processes involved when classroom teachers develop curricula. However, the limited findings available demonstrate that teachers, too, begin in ways other than by stating objectives. Eisner (1967) shows that teachers often identify, at the outset, defensible activities and go on to determine the possible consequences for the students of engaging in those activities.

Taylor (1970) has shown that teachers' perceptions of the process of planning are dominated by the exigencies of the teaching situation, such as the need to have materials and resources and subject matter, to take into account students' attitudes and interests, one's general aims as a teacher, and to have a justification for them, and to have a range of criteria for judging the effectiveness of the various interrelated activities in which one engages.

Conclusion

Descriptive studies of the processes involved in program development fit within a rationale of attempting to solve practical dilemmas confronting educational practitioners. Two major themes have emerged from the few studies that have been carried out thus far.

The first finding is that deliberations do not proceed in an orderly progression from formulation of objectives to achieving of ends, as stipulated by such theorists as Tyler (1949) and Taba (1962).

Briefly stated, the Tyler rationale requires planners to: (a) state objectives; (b) select experiences; (c) organize experiences and content; and (d) evaluate in terms of the extent to which objectives have been attained.

Walker (1975) has described the decision-making processes of one program development committee as being "like an amoeba which lurched forward by extending the very stuff of its life--its deliberations--in localized forays into the territory ahead" (p. 111). This is not the linear ends-means progression outlined by the Tyler model.

Many (Walker, 1975; Reid, 1975; Wise, 1976), in recent years, have argued against the idea that the stating of objectives is the best way to begin planning.

Walker has said

> Adherence to this ideal has already led to some bizarre excesses in the US. I have in mind

> the Kafkaesque image of thousands of teachers in schools and colleges throughout the country at this very moment writing behavioral objectives or selecting them for purchase (that's right, they are for sale) in response to demands from officials operating under the assumption that the use of behavioural objectives is absolutely the only way to secure program evaluation. (1975, p. 133)

The second finding concerns the way in which decisions are reached. Again, this is anything but a clearcut, orderly process. Negotiation seems to be the means by which consensus is achieved among the various parties involved.

Reid and Walker (1975) have described the process of curriculum development as a

> quaisi-political process which allows policy to be 'discovered' through negotiation, objectives to arise when choice points are reached, and accommodations to be found which enable competing belief systems to achieve a _modus vivendi_. (Reid & Walker, 1975, p. 54)

In-Service: Findings of the Research

Introduction

This section will review the current research findings related to effective in-service practice. From this review of the literature, ten tenets of effective in-service practice have been drawn.

Since it is stated in the developers' Proposal that "the implications of recent research on in-service efforts" (p. 2) were taken into consideration in determining the shape of the proposed program, the ideas expressed in these tenets have been included as part of the developers' platform, described and analyzed in Chapter IV.

In-service has been referred to as "the slum of American education. It is disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, and has little effect" (Wood & Thompson, 1980, p. 374).

Closer to home, the Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, has referred to it as "an issue . . . that most people have long since given up on" (Personal correspondence, Feb. 25, 1981).

Hentschel (1977) points out that "today's inservice activities are not markedly changed from activities conducted in the early 1900s" (p. 103).

Forty-four teachers surveyed by Brimm and Tollett (1974) agreed with the statements that, "Most inservice programs are virtually useless" (p. 524).

Articles on the subject of in-service have such titles as "Don't Give Up On Inservice Harry," "Inservice Education: Its Murky Past and Uncertain Future," "In-Service Education: Cornerstone of Curriculum Development - or Stumbling Block?" or "Inservice: Bandwagon or Hearse?"

Jarolimek has said:

> One might assume . . . that something perceived to be as important as in-service education of teachers would be very well done. If we are to believe reports of hundreds of teachers, however, along with the results of some research, we would have to conclude that in-service programs are very frequently not well done, and for the most part are ineffective in changing teacher behavior over any length of time. (1970, p. 329)

Research in the area of in-service education is very limited. Many of the "findings" are really only hypotheses or "hunches," based on experience, rather than conclusions based on research (Joyce and Showers, 1980; Hentschel, 1977).

Fullan and Pomfret (1977), in their extensive review of the research relating to curriculum and instruction implementation, found only seven studies where in-service training was directly involved as a factor.

In a review of the research relating to in-service, carried out for the Conference on Inservice, sponsored by the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, the 1980-81 Masters Degree candidates summed up their findings in the following way:

> Of the seven hundred articles on inservice education which we reviewed, fewer than 10% report research findings. Of the 55 to 60 research based articles, only 23 dealt with inservice programs for Public School Teachers. The other 35 or so dealt with college/university teaching or with administrative skills. (1980, p.4)

It is evident that in-service is an area in education that educators would prefer to forget. Results are disappointing and teachers often view it as a waste of time. They do not see it as meeting their needs.

Planning In-Service Programs

Determining Teachers' Needs

A number of studies have been concerned with determining the importance which teachers place on needs-assessment procedures being used as the first step to in-service program planning, and secondly, with the degree of success of programs where this has been the first step.

These studies point to two things. The first is the high value which teachers place on having their expressed needs shape the in-service programs in which they participate. The second is that teachers tend to perceive those programs which have been planned with their expressed needs in mind as having been successful.

Zigarmi, Betz and Jensen (1977) administered a questionnaire survey to 1,239 teachers. They found that teachers want in-service program planning to be based on their expressed needs. Furthermore, teachers report higher satisfaction with in-service programs that have been planned with their needs in mind, than with those that have not.

Brimm and Tollett (1974) used a "teachers Attitude Towards In-Service Education Inventory" in a survey of teachers from each of the 147 school districts in Tennessee. Using a Likert-type scale, teachers responded to a series of 34 statements regarding in-service education programs. Eighty-nine percent either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "The teachershould have the opportunity to select the kind of in-service activities which he feels will strengthen his professional competence" (p. 523). Seventy-three percent said that too often in-service activities do not appear relevant to any felt needs of the teacher.

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) in the United States, surveyed 7,500 elementary and secondary teachers in 1975, as to their perceptions regarding the usefulness of in-service education. Many of the results of this study have been reported and discussed in An In-Service Handbook for Mathematics Education (Osborne, 1977). A 150-item questionnaire was sent to each teacher, most of whom indicated that they had had experience within the previous two years upon which to base their responses. Elementary teachers who helped identify in-service topics were significantly more likely to have realized satisfaction and have had a positive in-service experience than those who had not. Secondary teachers who had participated in topic selection were about twice as likely to have had a positive in-service experience than were those who had not.

On the basis of a review of five studies which surveyed and analyzed a variety of in-service practices and programs, Wilen and Kindsvatter (1978) also came to the conclusion that "the needs of teachers must directly influence the nature and design of in-service education programs" (p. 394).

There is some question regarding the validity of surveys of teachers' needs, in that in-service needs, as reported by teachers, and their needs, as seen by others, may not be the same.

Jones and Hayes (1980) administered an Inventory for the purpose of measuring knowledge and perception of needs in a number of aspects of reading instruction, including reading readiness, word perception, and diagnosis. They found that, while the average percentage of items correct on the Inventory was 61, teachers did not perceive greater knowledge in these areas to be a need.

Jones and Hayes suggest that "determining needs and securing statements from teachers about concerns or current problems are two distinctly different tasks" (p. 392). Observation, forma testing, and interviewing as well as questionnaires should be used to assess teachers' needs. They advise that questions be asked in a way that identifies symptoms rather than development activities. For instance, a question might be asked concerning the difficulties of teaching students with different abilities or interests rather than one concerning the needs for a workshop on learning centres.

They conclude:

> Our research suggests that teachers can express symptoms of needs but may not be aware of their actual needs. The needs they report must be analyzed by objective means to determine the

> underlying conditions that resulted in expression of the symptoms. (1980, p. 392)

Discussion

The assumption seems to be commonly made, by in-service leaders, that they know what the teachers' problems are. As a result, they confidently go about the business of designing a program to solve these problems.

The implication for planning in-service programs of the studies mentioned here, is that this assumption should not be made. Rather, the first step in planning would be to systematically determine what it is, if anything, that teachers may wish to gain, from an in-service program.

As for the argument that teachers do not always identify their "real" needs,

> the initial activities should respond to the need or want as expressed so that the energy of the teacher will not be dampened, and the enthusiasm of the teacher will not be dulled. As the inservice education response proceeds, other needs may be defined, and other plans can be made to meet them. (Young, 1979, p. 5)

Teacher Involvement in Planning

Wilen and Kindsvatter (1978) found that "teachers need to be directly involved in planning the goals, content, and instructional approach of in-service education programs" (p. 394). Not only should they be involved, according to Wilen and Kindsvatter, but they should assume the major responsibility since the in-service is being conducted for them.

One of the characteristics which Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen (1977) found to be common to types of in-service which teachers consider to be most useful, was that teachers are "involved in planning and feel that they have some control over their own inservice experiences" (p. 551).

Ninety-three percent of the teachers surveyed by Brimm and Tollett (1974) "stated that teachers need to be involved in the development of purposes, activities, and methods of evaluation for in-service programs" (p. 524).

From interviews with more than one thousand educators, Joyce et al. (1976) found that respondents considered it the responsibility of teachers, or teachers in cooperation with other groups, to determine the content of in-service programs.

Lawrence (1974), in a summary of ninety-seven studies or evaluation reports of in-service education, concluded that "the inservice programs that have the best chance of being effective are those that involve teachers in planning and managing their own professional development activities" (p. 114).

Ninety-three percent of the elementary and 92% of the secondary teachers in the NCTM survey (1977) indicated a preference for participation in identifying the topics dealt with at in-service sessions.

Young (1979) sets out four phases of planned change -- need identification, solution or program selection, solution implementation, and evaluation.

He points out that whatever "solutions" an in-service program is attempting to present, it will be owned by the teacher only if the teacher has shared in the definition of the need in the first place, and the choice and adaptation of the solution.

Discussion

Teacher involvement in planning the in-service program in which they will participate seems to be of paramount importance. This is likely related, at least in part, to the fact that sharing in planning results in the building up of commitment. If one has a stake in the success of the program one is more likely to participate with enthusiasm and look back upon the in-service experience as having been successful.

Implementing In-Service Programs

Teachers Helping Teachers

Millikan (1979) found, in a study of a sample of secondary school teachers in Edmonton, that these teachers relied almost entirely on other teachers for assistance. They called on supervisors or consultants only rarely.

Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen's (1977) results show that, with the exception of workshops carried out on college/university campuses, teachers consistently ranked in-service experiences conducted by outside consultants as less useful than experiences involving working with other teachers.

In the NCTM survey (1977), teachers indicated a preference for working with a person in one's own school, rather than having an outside consultant come in. Teachers in a school system where in-service responsibility was taken locally were less likely to express the complaint that in-service was too general. They were also more likely to express satisfaction with their in-service experiences.

McLaughlin (1976) points out that teachers found visits to other schools to be very helpful when implementing new programs. He says, "The teachers felt that seeing a similar project in operation for just a few hours was worth more than several days of consultants delivering talks on philosophy" (p. 345). Wagner (cited in Davies, & Armistead, 1975) advocates that provision be made for opportunities for teachers to visit other schools to observe teachers in situations similar to their own. He sees these visits to be highly educational regardless of the quality of the teaching being observed.

The 1975 Downey Assessment of the Implementation of the 1971 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, concluded that "in the final analysis, teachers viewed each other as the best source of assistance and encouragement" (p. 18). Eighty percent of the teachers surveyed indicated that other teachers had either "always" or "often" been helpful to them when planning social studies units.

According to Joyce (1980), every teacher should be an expert coach in order to assist other teachers who are attempting to add new skills to their repertoire, and, in turn, to be assisted by them.

Allen (1971), too, advocates the establishment of opportunities for teachers to engage in supervision and observation of, and with, other teachers.

Davis, Maier, and Mitzman (1977) describe a peer teaching approach used in Oregon. The staff of the Oregon System in Mathematics Education (OSME) act as go-betweens, travelling about the state, identifying locally perceived needs in mathematics and providing support for local teachers in organizing to meet their needs. Davis et al. mention the "special informality and sensitivity to other teachers' needs and feelings" (p. 185) which teachers display as in-service leaders. They also point out the credibility which teachers see other teachers as possessing.

Flanders (1980) studied the needs of teachers in the professional development area by spending close to a year as a participant observer in the Professional Development Division of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation.

Teachers in this study reported that they learned how to teach from experience and from colleagues. University teacher education was considered to have been useless in terms of preparing them for the classroom and in-service programs, or "workshops", as Flanders calls them, were rated a poor third. These teachers placed strong emphasis on the desirability of professional development that would capitalize on the assistance that teachers can provide for each other. The most valuable in-service experience was considered to be a one-on-one with a colleague. They also valued opportunities to meet with groups of colleagues to discuss "difficulties, feelings and concerns; to discover what other teaching situations are like; and to explore other solutions to common problems that had been tried" (p. A-11).

Flanders found beginning teachers to be in an especially vulnerable situation. Particularly in a tight job market, they do not want any difficulties they may be experiencing to become public. Hence, the principal is perceived as someone who should be kept unaware of any problems. They really have no one to turn to, other than a sympathetic colleague.

Widespread agreement for the following pattern of professional development was found among teachers:

> First, a short period of intensive skills training; basically on how to handle yourself effectively in a classroom.
>
> Second, a long period of apprenticeship, as much as three years, with one or more very experienced teachers, persons who could articulate and demonstrate and allow the apprentice to enter into the teaching process.
>
> Third, having responsibility for your own class with a mature teacher as a "mentor;" that is, someone who could help you with your style, in your specific situation, with your kids.
>
> Fourth, being on your own with opportunities to share with colleagues.
>
> Fifth, eventually, after five to eight years of classroom teaching, depth study of theory and philosophy. (p. A-11)

This pattern reflects teachers' criticisms of the usual mode of presentation of theory prior to teaching experience, when they have no meaningful context in which to place it. Teachers, in this study, showed a growing interest in depth study of theory and philosophy at a later stage in their careers.

This pattern also capitalizes on teachers helping teachers. The suggestion is made that the "Mentor" role in Stage Three could be filled by retired teachers. These people would not be in an evaluative role. Hence, they would not be perceived as threatening. However, they would possess a wealth of experience from which to draw.

Discussion

A growing body of findings indicates that, for teachers, other teachers are the primary source of assistance. It seems evident that teachers prefer the assistance of other teachers to "the noblesse oblige fashion of condescension" (Bush, 1971, p. 60) that they associate with the role of consultants.

Perhaps this is a symptom of the "misery loves company" syndrome, but it seems obvious that it is easier for teachers to voice their concerns to someone else who has, is, or will be, going through the same experiences, than to someone who comes into the school setting for brief visits, and who may be operating in an evaluative role as well as a helping one.

Teachers see suggestions made by other teachers who are able to say, "I tried this with my kids the other day, and this is what happened" (Davis et al., 1977, p. 185) as having a potent credibility not possessed by those who are removed from the classroom.

The importance which teachers place on the assistance of other teachers has two implications for in-service programs. First, it points to in-service leaders being either practising classroom teachers or people who have considerable classroom experience to their credit. Second, it implies that an effective in-service strategy would be to provide time for teachers to interact with one another, to share ideas, concerns, and experiences.

Location

Calls for school-based in-service are becoming increasingly frequent.

Lippitt and Fox (1971) state that "most in-service activities should be carried on within a setting in which people who work together have an opportunity to learn together" (p. 140).

Rowan, Capehart, and Sharpe (1977) declare that doing this will increase the chance of identifying common needs. The probability of the group recognizing a common need is increased if there is a close rapport within the group (p. 95).

Bacon (1980) has spoken of the failure of the "course-based model" and the need for a "school-focus model" where schools become "learning communities" for staff members.

Watkins (1973) speaks of school-based in-service courses and their advantages.

> The traditional course drawing on teachers from widely different experience and geographical background spends a great deal of time on the inevitable rituals of social interaction practised by a group of professionals coming together for the first time. Teachers often

> say that they are just about ready to start on their discussions as the course draws to an end! Furthermore, school-based courses can be most closely tailored to local needs and resources. (p. 88)

Young (1979) refers to the use of "intact groups" (p. 11), examples of which might be a total staff, all administrators, or teachers of a particular subject in a school. The advantages of the intact group are that acceptance and trust have (hopefully) already been established and members will provide the mutual support necessary when attempting to implement a change of any kind.

Meade (1971) advocates a new role, which he calls, "training specialist". This role would involve these functions:

a) to assist teachers to find the kind of teaching responsibilities for which they are best suited, and

b) to inspire those with whom he worked to teach somewhere near their optimal capacity.

The training specialist would work with teachers in their own milieu, where practice of new skills can take place, accompanied by analytical critique.

Discussion

Having in-service programs in the school setting seems a natural way to implement the "teachers-helping-teachers" strategy discussed in the previous section. It facilitates not only the involvement of practising teachers as in-service planners and leaders, but also enables participants to provide assistance to one another afterwards, as they attempt to apply new ideas in the classroom.

Furthermore, in-service programs are much more likely to meet the needs of teachers when they take place in the school setting, than when participants go to a central location where some large scale program has been planned. As Flanders (1980) points out, there are profound differences in schools. These can involve such factors as socio-economic and cultural patterns, differences between city-core, suburban, and rural schools, and differences in parental involvement. When an in-service program is designed for teachers at a particular school, it can be tailored to their unique milieu.

Teachers as Learners

Teachers, as adult learners, wish to be autonomous. They wish to be responsible for "defining educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms and turf" (Bailey, 1971, p. 146).

They want to make their own decisions regarding attendance at in-service programs, rather than having it imposed upon them. Several studies point out the importance which teachers place on having this choice. (Zigarmi, Betz, & Jensen, 1977; Young, 1979).

Trentham (1977) described a Phi Delta Kappa study of Professional Renewal, that indicated that successful in-service programs were, among other things, voluntarily and cooperatively planned.

Flanders' (1980) study points to two reasons for resentment by teachers of laid-on in-service programs. First, they often lack specific relevance, and secondly, they are perceived as meeting interests other than one's own development as a teacher.

The work of the Rapports (1975) and Tough (1967; 1968; 1968; 1971) suggests that adults prefer to learn in informal settings where social interaction is facilitated. This finding would seem to point to the school setting again, where people are comfortable and know the other participants.

Young (1979) points out that adult learners are not willing to defer gratification or relaxation and that, if provision for social interaction is not included within workshops and courses, then participants will simply make the time for it on their own initiative. Young based this statement on the findings of Arrends (1979).

Flanders (1980) discusses the "cellular isolation" (p. A-14) in which teachers spend most of their working hours. Only in their brief moments in the staff room do they have the opportunity to be with other adults.

His findings indicate that, to many teachers, this isolation is a heavy psychological burden. It seems reasonable, therefore, that they would seize upon the chance to interact with other teachers when gathered together in an in-service setting.

Discussion

The two key ideas with respect to teachers as learners are autonomy and social interaction.

Teachers value in-service programs where they have freely chosen to participate and where opportunities have been built in for interaction with other participants.

Impact of Different Delivery Styles

Joyce and Showers (1980) analyzed more than two hundred studies on the effectiveness of various kinds of training methods. They concluded that for mastery of new teaching strategies and/or learning to put alternative curricula in place, the following components must be included: presentation of the theory of the new approach, demonstration, practice under simulated conditions with careful and consistent feedback, and further practice with coaching in the classroom.

Joyce and Showers also concluded that presentation of theory, when used as the sole training component, is not powerful enough to achieve much impact beyond simply awareness of the new strategy. The following two studies provide support for this conclusion.

Hayden and Lloyd (1980) reviewed eight doctoral theses, all of which analyzed an in-service project which was attempting to change teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming the handicapped child. The participants were evaluated both before and after the in-service, using the "Rucker Bagle Educational Programming Scale" and the "Attitudes Towards Mentally Handicapped Scale." The in-service program employed a variety of techniques, the most prevalent of which was the lecture method, whereby outside experts imparted knowledge on the behaviours and needs of the handicapped. This method, in most instances, was found to have no effect on participants' attitudes. In fact, several cases were noted where the control group, which did not participate in the in-service program, demonstrated as much attitude change as did the in-service participants.

Lawrence's review (1974) indicates there is greater likelihood of accomplishing in-service objectives when participants are in active rather than passive roles. He concludes that "inservice education programs that emphasize demonstrations, supervised trials, and feedback are more likely to accomplish their goals than are programs in which the teacher is expected to store up ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time" (p. 115).

Discussion

Joyce (1980) does not distinguish between education and training. The desired outcome of in-service, as he views it, is the acquisition of particular skills and their inclusion in the participants' repertoire of teaching skills.

Within this mode then, the findings strongly indicate that teachers must have opportunities for application with coaching, in the classroom. This provides further evidence for a school-based model of in-service, where teachers can try out new skills in a supportive atmosphere.

One of the suggestions of participants of the Conference On Inservice (October, 1980) at The University of Alberta, was the idea of a permanent, rotating position of teacher coach held by a member of each school staff. This approach would capitalize on the importance which teachers already place on their fellow teachers as a source of assistance.

Teacher Preference and Delivery Styles

Johnston and Yeakey (1977) measured administrators' and teachers' preferences for staff development by means of a questionnaire administered to 313 teachers and 23 administrators from elementary schools in New Jersey. Hands-on experience was the unanimous first choice as the preferred method of presentation for in-service. The least preferred method of presentation was the lecture method.

McLaughlin (1976) found, in a Rand Corporation study involving an extensive review of the literature on educational innovations and a survey of 293 change agent projects, that lectures by outside experts, were not considered particularly helpful. In cases where outside experts were seen to be useful, their role was to work closely with teachers in hands-on workshops.

Jones and Hayes (1980), in their questionnaire survey of eighty-six teachers, found that the types of in-service considered to be the most beneficial were demonstration lessons and workshops. A reason suggested for this was that teachers consider these activities to be immediately useful because of their focus on instructional materials and techniques, rather than on underlying theory.

In support of these studies, the NCTM survey (1977) found that teachers place a great deal of importance on taking away from the in-service session materials which can be used in the classroom. One section of the questionnaire consisted of statements, each of which required a response as to the IS and the OUGHT-TO-BE. Ninety-six percent of the elementary teachers gave the highest OUGHT-TO-BE ratings to purposes related to studying new methods, providing opportunity to share ideas and describing new materials and information of direct use in the classroom.

Discussion

While Flanders (1980) has pointed out that teachers, at a later stage in their career, are interested in underlying theory, it seems that the in-service programs that are rated most highly in many surveys are those which are seen to be the most directly relevant to classroom experience.

Teachers do not consider a worthwhile in-service experience to be one of sitting and listening to a lecture about "hands-on" teaching techniques. They like to have the opportunity to try new ideas out, perhaps even making something which can be used immediately in the classroom.

This may be because of the fact that most in-service is a one-shot effort. When attending only one session teachers want to see a direct return on the time invested. Perhaps as participants in an ongoing program, they would be more willing to take the time to explore alternatives, to look at theory, and generally, to take part in activities for which the classroom payoff may not be as immediate.

Ongoing Versus One-Shot In-Service

Short term in-service does not seem to have an impact on teacher behaviour.

Boschee and Hein (1980) studied a workshop called "Facilitating Inquiry in the Classroom" to determine whether there were any lasting changes in teacher behaviour following the in-service experience.

The in-service was intended to improve teachers' questionning ability. The valuation was based partially on an analysis of the content of the questions teachers asked their students before and after the workshop. No significant change was found in the level of questions asked.

McLaughlin (1976) found that "one-shot training or training heavily concentrated at the beginning of the project, was not effective" (p. 344).

Fullan and Pomfret (1977), on the basis of the seven studies on in-service related to implementation of new programs, which they review, come to the conclusion that

> In summary, it appears that intensive in-service training (as distinct from single workshops or preservice training) is an important strategy for implementation. Apparently, this experience functions to provide teachers with demonstration models and experiences as well as psychological reinforcement conducive to resocialization. (p. 373)

Frey, (1980) sees continuing staff development as helping teachers to experience "ownership" of a new program. Ongoing in-service sessions are as important as initial ones, since questions and problems which cannot be anticipated arise in the course of using an innovation. Development of materials in ongoing sessions gives teachers an opportunity to learn the program's approach by applying it in a concrete way.

In the NCTM (1977) survey, it was found that satisfaction and positive experience were more probable when teachers had participated in a continuing series of experiences with a single topic. Eighty-three percent of elementary teachers and 79% of secondary teachers saw a need for follow-up activities.

The Downey Report (1975) concluded that:

> (2) One-shot workshops, institutes, and programs seem to be of little help in effecting changes at the classroom level. These activities appear to make teachers aware of change, yet fall short of committing them to it.
>
> (3) "Earthquake" program changes negate most research that has been done on change strategies. (p. 266)

The report also mentions the key importance of follow-up activities in the school.

Other articles in support of these conclusions are Zigarmi, Betz, and Jensen, 1977; Baldwin, 1975; Dawson, 1978; and Cruickshank, Lorish, and Thompson, 1979.

Discussion

These findings reinforce many of the ideas discussed previously. One idea which is reinforced is that of having in-service programs in the school setting. The school setting would seem to be far more conducive to longterm in-service than would any other setting.

Going back to Joyce's (1980) typology, one-shot workshops cannot hope to achieve more than an awareness level of impact. It is only over time that we are able to apply what we have learned to the classroom situation.

Resources

Studies point to the fact that, if a change of role is necessary on the part of teachers and students in order for implementation of an innovation to take place, then resources, time in particular, must be made available to allow the change to occur.

A number of educators have called for school jurisdictions to provide funds for release time, in order that in-service sessions may be held during the regular school day (Ryor, 1979; Wilen and Kindsvatter, 1978; Wood & Thompson, 1980). Davies & Armistead (1975) mention a number of school districts in the

United States which are making this commitment.

Feinberg (1974), on the basis of a U.S. national survey, found that schools engaging in "highly effective" in-service programs were paying teachers for any time spent beyond their regular working hours.

Smith and Keith (1971) describe the establishment of an innovative elementary school, which was to employ individualizing and humanizing approaches to instruction. This involved redefinition of pupil-teacher roles, with the teacher taking a catalytic and facilitative role and the pupil, in turn, taking on more individual responsibility.

This experience was not considered to be successful. At the end of the first year, only eight of eighteen teachers were returning, and the principal left in the middle of the second year.

Fullan (1972), in analyzing the Smith and Keith study, concludes that

> there was a failure to cope with two related underlying factors in the implementation process that seem fundamental: first, there will inevitably be uncertainty on the part of users regarding the learning of complex new roles, and this must be dealt with openly and directly; second, necessary time and other resources must be built into the implementation process in order for this new learning to occur. (p. 10)

In the case of this innovative school, teachers agreed on the general goals, but this was not enough. It was necessary that time and effort be focused on the practicalities of the implications of change in role for both teachers and pupils, and this was not done. Teachers felt confused about how to implement the changes, but there was no provision for two critical resources -- time to allow new roles to develop and a support system which would help people to feel comfortable in trying out the new roles. (The idea of a support system in the form of **teacher coaches** was mentioned previously in the discussion of Joyce's typology.

Discussion

The reasons for the importance of school jurisdictions providing resources for in-service programs are probably two-fold. There is the obvious, practical reason that it is easier to participate wholeheartedly in an in-service session which is held during the day, than after school, when one is physically and mentally tired. But secondly, and probably just as important, by providing the money for release time or other resources, central administrators are indicating that they see the in-service program as being important.

McLaughlin (1976), in describing the Rand Change -Agent Study, says that the attitudes of central administrators provided a "signal" to project participants as to how seriously they should take project goals and how hard they should work to achieve them.

Evaluation of In-Service Programs

Commonly in-service evaluation consists of handing out a questionnaire to participants asking them whether they enjoyed the session(s) or found it (them) useful. It may also request suggestions for improvement.

> While most in-service leaders would probably prefer that participants enjoyed sessions rather than not, such an emphasis seems to be wide of the mark. Again, while it is probably more important that participants found the sessions useful, such statements can only be of limited value. (Nash & Ireland, 1979, p. 10)

The Boschee and Hein (1980) study throws doubt on the reliability of such evaluations by participants. Their study used a questionnaire immediately following the workshop, and again, six months later. In the survey completed immediately after the workshop, 97% of participants said that they would recommend the workshop to others. On the six-month follow-up survey only 40% said they would recommend it. Twenty percent now said that they wouldn't recommend it under any conditions.

One possible explanation for the results of the follow-up is that, six months later, teachers began to rationalize their lack of behaviour change by faulting the workshop itself because they had failed to meet their own expectations of personal growth held at the time of the workshop.

Not a great deal of attention has been paid to actually evaluating the effect of in-service experiences on subsequent teacher behaviour in the classroom. Nash and Ireland (1979) suggest that theoretical knowledge of in-service is unlikely to increase until we have more direct observational data of classroom behaviour, supplemented by teacher questionnaires.

The other area which Nash and Ireland consider to be of significance for evaluation is the in-service experience itself. "Have the leaders created the situations they intended? Do the participants perceive the situations appropriately? What actual learning opportunities are provided (regardless of the planners' intentions)?" (p. 11) They suggest that evaluators might employ Parlett and Hamilton's concept of "illuminative" evaluation by means of observation of the actual in-service experience and interviews with participants.

Ryor (1979), too, has called for documentation and evaluation of in-service programs on an ongoing basis rather than using "an add-on or external appraisal" (p. 15).

Osborne and Bowling (1977) mention several purposes for evaluation of in-service programs. The first has to do with the obtaining of resources. An evaluation can serve as the basis of a case for continued support of the program by a school board or a school administration. It can also serve as part of a needs assessment for the next year's program. Evaluation data can be used to redesign the program itself. Osborne and Bowling point out that this information can be used to promote the in-service program.

> If you can advertise that 91 percent of the participants in the program last year found it effective, then that will encourage participation in a comparable program this year. Or if you can say that 27 percent of the teachers participating in the program had a gripe and that the program has been redesigned to alleviate that gripe, then potential participants have more reason to expect payoff and good use of their valuable time. (1977, p. 69)

Discussion

It seems that only a minimal level of evaluation of in-service programs is being carried out at the present time, with in-service leaders commonly relying "on opinions of the entertainment value of sessions as indicators of success" (Nash & Ireland, 1979, p. 20).

There is a need for far more extensive forms of evaluation than this. In fact research needs to be conducted at a number of levels in order to get a complete picture of what teaching is all about and the place of in-service within that picture.

Flanders (1980) has pointed out the need "to create a body of canonical knowledge out of the reality of teachers' lives" (p. A-38). He has recommended

> that teachers be funded, aided and abetted to do their own research that serves the interests of the profession; focusing on the very nature of teaching, on teaching in the context of comtemporary change, on advancing the judgment and credibility of the teaching professional. (p. C-2)

The Department of Elementary Education Conference on Inservice, held at The University of Alberta in October of 1980, called for research in several areas related to in-service education (Searle, 1980).

Like Flanders, participants at the conference pointed out the need for teachers to become involved in classroom research for their own professional development and as a means of generating data relating to improvement of teaching generally. There is a dire need for more information concerning what actually goes on in classrooms in the tradition of the research carried out by Jackson (1968). Studies such as the doctoral work of Boag (1980), Odynak (1981), Boyce (in progress), and Graham (in progress) are carrying on the task of looking at what actually goes on in classrooms.

Conference participants also called for the universities to research questions relating to the nature of the learner and learning involved in in-service education. Much more information is needed on the adult learner - motivation, needs, goals, etc.

Thirdly, they called for all groups to conduct evaluations of the long-term effects of in-service programs. This could begin with structured classroom observation of teachers prior to their attendance at the in-service sessions, followed by participant observation of sessions and interviews with the teachers. The evaluation cycle would be complete with a second period of structured observation in the classroom to determine if any change in classroom behaviour had occurred, presumably as a result of participation in the in-service program.

Bolam (1978) has pointed out a need for evaluation of INSET (In-Service Education and Training) to take into account work in the related fields of evaluation research, organization development, survey feedback, industrial management training, innovation studies, and clinical supervision (p. 43).

There is a dearth of information at the present time as to what actually goes on in classrooms, the nature of the adult learner, and the long-term effects of in-service programs. The above procedures would go a long way toward remedying this situation.

Conclusions

Studies, such as those carried out by Joyce (1980), are concerned with the most efficient and effective training methods by which teachers can acquire new skills and transfer them to the classroom. These studies serve a useful purpose, in that there are always new skills to be learned and better ways to teach. However, this approach is very much in a top-down model of bureaucratic control, the mechanisms of which are "techno-rational processes" (Flanders, 1980, p. B-1).

> Techno-rational processes emphasize information-transfer and technique. In this mode of thought, professional development becomes skill training. The solution to educational problems becomes, "fix the teacher." That fixing the teacher has become an industry itself, should be noted. (p. B-1)

Over and over again studies cited in this review of the research on in-service point to the need for a different mode of professional development. These studies are part of what Bolam (1978) has identified as "a powerful movement for teachers to participate in educational decision making in general and in decisions affecting INSET in particular" (p. 33). To meet this need Flanders recommends "that the intensive resources currently committed to workshop management be re-directed from a 'fix the teacher' strategy to a full professionalization strategy" (p. C-1).

The findings of the Flanders study indicate first, that teachers do not want to use techno-rational control processes with children, and secondly, that they don't work anyway.

An assumption of Flanders' study is that we are experiencing a social-cultural revolution. As a result of this "the task of teaching has shifted from programming people to helping people learn to program and re-program themselves in meaningful ways" (p. B-3).

If this is true of teachers teaching children, then it should be even more true of teachers' own in-service experiences.

> Teachers often characterize themselves as "civil servants" by which they mean that they are without power to execute judgment of implement change. Teachers often characterize themselves as not professionals because they are highly restricted in their range of choices. (Flanders, 1980, p. A-25)

Flanders sees two means by which teachers can become fully professional. The first is the development of a common meaning, a body of professional knowledge.

> This would involve breaking down the walls of isolation, developing and extending support capabilities, sharing and consciousness raising through collective action, developing sophisticated communication systems so that the profession can develop the critical level of common meaning that overcomes divide-and-conquer strategies. (p. B-3)

A common meaning system would allow teachers to share common goals. Unfortunately, at this point in time, teachers do not seem to share a common meaning system. Some of the examples given by Flanders, of the diversity of teacher meanings are: "student-orientation versus subject-orientation" (p. A-24), "differences in socio-economic and cultural patterns between schools and districts" (p. A-25), "differences between city-core, suburban and rural schools" (p. A-25), and "a wide range of values, attitudes, beliefs, opinion and experience among the teacher population" (p. A-25).

The second means by which teachers can become fully professional involves a commitment to owning teacher development "so that PD is not 'done to teachers' but is done by teachers" (p. B-3). "Teachers ... teach yourselves" (B-3).

Cane (1973) points out a paradox in this situation in that "training and research programmes must retain close contact with the classroom, but these programmes cannot be effectively organized except by full-time persons with time to think and plan, and who then -- by definition -- will no longer by teaching in the classroom" (p. 77).

One possible solution to this problem is utilization of teacher centres along the lines of a theoretical model developed by Slater (1980) in a

Master's thesis completed at Simon Fraser University. Slater developed nine propositional statements

> forming the basis of a model designed to maximum professional growth among teachers, and to stimulate innovation in education. These are: (1) The teachers' centre is a physical location where teachers can learn and help others to learn classroom instructional and developmental techniques. (2) Fundamental educational reform originates with the classroom teacher. (3) Outside experts can assist but not instigate. (4) Teachers desire professionalism. (5) Teachers' centres should offer extensive in-service activities for the professional development of teachers. (6) Teachers' centres should provide a materials source, both for manipulation and dissemination. (7) Teachers' centres should be the base of extensive research and developmental activities. (8) The teachers' centre should be run by teachers and for teachers, and should be financed by the school system in which it is located. (9) The prime focus of the centre is the classroom teacher. (p. iv)

Forty-six centres across Canada were surveyed in this study, with no consistent match found between centres and the theoretical model. Results indicated that the focus of Canadian teachers' centres, at present, is on organized in-service activities and distribution of materials, with scant attention paid to curriculum or long-term professional development activities. In-service programs are developed and carried out for teachers rather than by them.

While this is the situation at present, it need not always be the case. Teacher centres are one possible means by which teachers can achieve the goal, as Flanders expresses it, of "seizing leadership in the development of education" (1980, p. C-2).

Other solutions may rest with the use of retired teachers as Mentors, as suggested by Flanders (1980), the ideas of teachers coaching one another, as suggested by Joyce (1980) and others, school-focused in-service (Bacon, 1980), peer teeching (Davis, Maier, & Mitzman, 1977), and systematic research into the nature of the classroom situation as perceived by teachers and students, the long-term effectiveness of in-service programs, and characteristics of the adult learner.

Tenets of Effective In-Service Programs

These tenets have been drawn from the preceding review of current research. They provide a brief summary of the major points made.

1. The expressed needs of teachers determine the content and shape of the in-service program.

Teachers perceive those in-service programs as relevant and successful which have been designed specifically to meet their expressed needs, rather than the needs attributed to them by others. As Flanders (1980) points out, "in communication theory, the communication that occurs is defined as the message that is received not as the message that is sent" (p. A-8).

This could point to an individualized type of in-service situation, where the first step would involve a form of assessment to help the individual determine his needs. The next step would involve selecting from an array of choices that one most appropriate to the individual's needs as indicated by the assessment.

2. Teachers are directly involved in planning the program (goals, content, instructional approach, evaluation, etc.)

The research findings are very strong here. It is extremely important to teachers that they are involved in planning their own in-service experiences. It is also one of two means by which Flanders (1980) sees teachers as becoming fully professional. If they own their professional development, then it is "not 'done to teachers' but is done by teachers" (Flanders, 1980, p. B-3). There is a significant difference between these two approaches.

3. Opportunities are provided for teachers to learn from one another.

Teachers prefer to learn from one another. They view statements made by other teachers as being highly credible since they too are in the front-lines daily.

4. The program takes place in the school setting.

The "intact group" provided by the school setting capitalizes on the mutual support which is already present. Valuable time does not have to be spent building it up. Furthermore, if participants work in the same setting, the chance of identifying common needs is greatly increased.

5. Attendance is voluntary.

Teachers are "highly conscientious" (Flanders, 1980, p.A-26). They wish to improve skills and increase knowledge. According to Young (1979), if a teacher does not have the opportunity to build up commitment through participation in planning the in-service, yet has full knowledge about the program, then the decision to attend or not will be based on its perceived usefulness.

Teachers are also highly autonomous. Again, according to Young (1979), there is little point in making in-service attendance mandatory, since "Teachers may openly rebel and not attend. They may be sick on the day of the workshop. Or, they may attend, and permit their feelings about having to attend, stand in the way of their learning. Or, they may attend, and participate, and then not use the new materials or approaches" (pp. 9-10).

6. Opportunities for social interaction are provided.

Teachers spend little of their work day in interaction with other adults. The opportunity to socialize is therefore a welcome one. Furthermore, in situations where in-service participants are not an "intact group," this social interaction is essential to building up the supportive environment necessary to trying out new ideas and discussing concerns.

7. If the goal is for participants to master new teaching strategies or to implement a new curriculum, then provision is made for presentation of theory or description of the skill or strategy, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching for application.

Many in-service programs stop at the first level of the above sequence. Not only are teachers unappreciative of the passive role in which this places them (Johnston and Yeakey, 1977), only about ten percent add a skill to their teaching repertoire when they are merely told about it (Joyce, 1980). For seventy-five percent, all of the above steps are necessary (Joyce, 1980).

8. The program is ongoing, over time.

To go through the sequence described in #7, a great deal of time is required. One does not acquire new skills during a one-shot workshop session such as that described by Boschee and Hein (1980), which was intended to improve teachers' questionning ability.

9. *The program has the support of central administrators, whether at the school jurisdiction or Department of Education level.*

The commitment of those who control the purse strings is rather meaningful in that it can result in release time for teachers planning or participating in in-service programs. It is one thing to talk airily of teachers taking charge of their own professional development, and another to back it up by providing the means of doing so.

10. *Provision is made for systematic research, conducted by teachers and others, regarding the nature of the classroom situation, the long-term effectiveness of in-service programs, and characteristics of the adult learner.*

If teachers take part of the responsibility for conducting research in their classrooms, this, again, will involve professional development which is done *by* teachers and not *to* them.

Unless research is conducted in each of these areas, in-service education will continue to be a "slum." Solid data, rather than hunches and hypotheses, are needed if current practices are to be changed.

Implementation of Social Studies Curricula in Alberta: 1971 - 1981

> Time present and time past
> Are both perhaps present in time future,
> And time future contained in time past.
>
> (Eliot, 1935, p.I)

Mentor, as does everything, occurred within a milieu determined by other events. This section will be devoted to a description of the events of the previous decade as a means of placing the Mentor Project within a context.

The previous decade had been an interesting one for social studies in Alberta. It began in 1971, with the appearance of a brand new social studies curriculum.

The 1971 Alberta social studies curriculum was viewed as a forerunner, a trail-blazing example for others to follow.

Gunn declared that Alberta "has been able to rise above its limitations and pioneer a new social studies trail, one which has already pointed the way for several provinces" (1971, p. 665). It was hailed as "a brave new step in the teaching of social studies" (St. John's Edmonton Report, January 5, 1976, p. 16).

Its conception preceded Jerome Bruner's impassioned plea for curriculum developers to turn away from the 'structure of the disciplines' approach for which he had long been the spokesman, and instead, deal with knowledge in the context of social problems.

> If I had my choice now, in terms of a curriculum
> project for the seventies, it would be to find a

> sense of values and priorities in life. I believe I would be quite satisfied to declare, if not a moratorium, then something of a deemphasis on matters that have to do with the structure of history, the structure of physics, the nature of mathematical consistency, and deal with it rather in the context of the problems that face us. We might better concern ourselves with how those problems can be solved, not just by practical action, but by putting knowledge, wherever we find it and in whatever form we find it, to work in these massive tasks. (1971, p. 21)

In fact, Bruner's plea in 1971, for a curricular emphasis on helping students to deal with social reality, is reminiscent of the same emphasis, in 1970, by one of the developers of the new Alberta social studies curriculum. He mentions the threats of

> urban blight, pollution, hunger, poverty, war, alienation, racism, crime, and a general worsening of the human condition . . . .
>
> In the light of this threat, there needs to be a realignment of educational priorities. Schools must provide experience in, and preparation for, the solving of social problems. To this end, legislators, policy makers and administrators must be convinced that the social studies deserve top priority in educational spending during the seventies. (Ledgerwood, 1970, p. 11)

The major characteristics of the 1971 curriculum were its valuing orientation and its flexibility (Aoki et al, 1973). The curriculum embraced the idea of the impermanence of factual content in this day and age, and organized its knowledge base around sixteen concepts. The knowledge component of the program was intended to be used in the service of decision-making about personal and social problems. One-third of social studies class time was left unstructured in order to provide students with an opportunity to deal with problems of current interest to them. The remaining two-thirds was organized around very broad themes such as, for example, "Compare Communities" (Grade 3). Specific content was to be chosen jointly by students and teachers.

This was obviously a revolutionary new program, not only in Alberta, but in Canada as a whole, and possibly in all of North America.

But what happened when the innovation reached the schools? How did teachers view it? Was it translated into instruction?

> The curriculum exists only in the experiences of children; it does not exist in textbooks, in the course of study, or in the plans and intentions of teachers. (Ragan, 1966, p. 5)

Criticisms were evident in the Alberta teacher journals almost immediately (Francombe, 1972; Lytton, 1972).[5] The major criticisms of the curriculum itself were "that the stated goals for values education in the social studies are inconsistent and therefore confusing. Second, that the values dimension of the program seems incapable of realization" (deLeeuw & Zelinski, 1975, p. 31).

Regarding implementation, concern was expressed about the emphasis on the teacher as unit builder.

> Conservative estimates indicate that it requires between 35 and 50 hours of out-of-school time to prepare one social studies unit. If you multiply those figures by four, the minimum number of units traditionally taught each year, you have teachers spending between 140 and 200 hours per term preparing the language-arts, science, music, physical education, and art programs.

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[5] For other reviews of the 1971 curriculum, see Daniels & Elliott (1974).

> Where is the time for grading, filling forms, team meetings, attending in-service programs, supervising concerts, and assorted other activities which now overfill teachers' days? (Massey, 1973, p. 24)

Lack of support materials was also a problem, with the "program in many areas [being] predicated upon materials that do not exist or are inappropriate" (Massey, 1973, p. 24).

The response from educators in the province prompted the Department of Education, in 1972, to note that "there have been some expressions of concern and difficulty" (The Social Studies Scene, June, 1972).

The first major study of the impact of the new curriculum was a Master's thesis, completed by Crowther, at The University of Alberta, in 1972. Only about 27% of the total sample of 322 elementary school teachers in nine school jurisdictions in the province indicated that they had adopted the innovation in any meaningful way.

> It becomes apparent that advances in instruction occur not with formal curriculum change, but only as changes in printed curricula initiate changes at the instructional level. (Chamberlin & Crowther, 1973, p. 14)

Three years later, in 1975, a province-wide assessment was made of the curriculum and the extent to which it was being implemented in Alberta social studies classrooms.

Regarding the curriculum itself, the Downey Report concluded

> that, although the Master Plan is highly commendable and highly acceptable in its major orientations, its internal inconsistencies and a lack of teacher awareness of its subtle intents have rendered it far less useful than it ought to have been. (p. 7)

With regard to the extent to which the curriculum was being implemented in social studies classrooms, the conclusion was "that there has been considerable slippage in the translation of the Master Plan into programs" (p. 11).

> Indeed, we conclude that the Master Plan is still, five years after its creation, far more an idea in the minds of its creators than it is a guide to social studies education in the classrooms of the Province. (p. 11)

Some of the reasons for the "slippage" were seen to be "lack of time for program development, lack of resources, lack of consultative services, and lack of teacher competence in program development" (p. 11).

Of nine major recommendations, excerpts have been taken from three that seem most pertinent here.

> #2 That the Department of Education undertake a reassessment of the Master Plan and a thoroughgoing revision of the major documents in which the Master Plan is articulated (p. 24).
>
> #5 That teachers and consultants be encouraged to strive to achieve a broader repertoire and a better balance of both teacher and student activities in the classroom (p. 26).
>
> #9 . . . That enlightened programs of in-service education be initiated cooperatively by Local Authorities, the Association, the Universities and the Department to engage practicing teachers in self-development . . . (p. 29)

There was obviously a need, as Crowther and Chamberlin pointed out, to bridge "the gap between printed curriculum and classroom practice" (1973, p. 17).

This process began in 1976, with the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum Interim Edition being approved for introduction to the schools in January 1979 (Ledgerwood, 1979).[6] This interim edition was to remain in effect for three years, during which time it was to be evaluated and revised, with a final version appearing in 1982 ("Change: The Ultimate Challenge," 1979).

The first step, according to D. Ledgerwood, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, was to make what he called "minor revisions to the program itself" [consisting of] a clearer balance among value, knowledge, and skill objectives and an increase in the amount of Canadian content" (1979, p. 4).

The new curriculum contained a far greater degree of content specificity than did the previous one. Now, instead of having a topic area such as "Comparative Communities" in Grade three, the topic was "Interdependence of Communities in Canada Today," with a number of concepts and generalizations which children were to develop as a result of acquiring information on the topic.

The valuing aspect was retained, but de-emphasized. Whereas the 1971 curriculum had focused on a specific valuing model, the 1978 curriculum was oriented around a particular social inquiry model, which listed the skills which are to be involved in the acquisition and utilization of information in order to reach value decisions.

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[6] For three reviews of the 1978 curriculum, see Connors et al (1980).

Three topics were prescribed for each grade from one to ten, and two at Grades eleven and twelve. Each topic was organized around a general value issue and related social issues and competing values. Three categories of objectives were provided -- value, knowledge, and skill. Value objectives were, in turn, of three types, with at least one objective of each type included with each topic. Knowledge objectives consisted of concepts and generalizations. Skill objectives were of two types -- inquiry and participation. An example of each skill objective was provided.

There was a reduction of student input in that the one-third portion of social studies class time which was to be devoted to exploration of issues of immediate concern to students, was reduced to one-quarter of the overall time allotment.

The expanding horizons framework for Grades one to six was retained from the 1971 curriculum. Canadian content was increased to about 60% of the total prescribed (3/4 of class time) program.

The 1978 curriculum retained the social action component (applying the decision). However, it too, was de-emphasized. "While the concept of active involvement is encouraged as a significant aspect of education for active citizenship . . . . Because of the need for sensitivity in carrying out this type of learning experience, social action is not prescribed, but is encouraged where possible, given the above cautions" (ASSCIE, 1978, p. 15). "In other words, don't rock the boat," as Harlan Hulleman put it in his 1979 review of the new curriculum (p. 7).

The second means of assisting in the implementation of the revised curriculum, identified by Ledgerwood, (1979) was the addition of a large number of materials to the learning resources available for use.

Eight million dollars of Heritage Trust Fund money was put toward development of Canadian content materials. A multimedia kit was developed for at least one topic at each grade level. Other Canadian content materials included a Junior Atlas of Alberta, provided for each student in Grades four to six; a Relief Model of Alberta, one for each school; and several series of books for enrichment purposes--Books for Young Readers, Western Canadian Literature for Youth, and Canadian Literature for Senior Students and Adults.

Additional funds were put toward exemplary units for another topic at each grade level. Consequently, of the three topics for each of grades one to ten, at least two were developed in the form of a multimedia kit and a teaching unit.

Monographs on selected topics were also developed. The first, A Handbook for Unit Planners, was intended to assist teachers in the task of developing units "that reflect the present orientation of the Alberta social studies program"(Massey, 1978, p. 2).

Ledgerwood mentions only the "minor revisions" and "the selection and/or development and production of the learning materials that make a program more teachable" (1979, p. 4) as the means used to increase implementation.

However, in addition to the above, Alberta Education, in cooperation with ACCESS, produced an in-service program entitled "The Revised Curriculum: Intents, Structure, Resources." The program was made available to Alberta Education Regional Consultants, School District Consultants, and Supervisors to be used with teachers around the province, beginning in the 1979-80 school year.

The program consists of seven separate components:

#1 A videotape entitled "Change: The Ultimate Challenge." which provides background information as to the philosophical rationale of the curriculum.

#2 A three-part slide-tape presentation (put onto videotape) entitled "Patterns and Parameters," which attempts to explain the format of the Curriculum Guide, briefly show how topic descriptions can be used in unit building and provide an overview of some of the materials which accompanied the new curriculum.

These two components of the in-service program were intended for large-group orientation. The following components were intended to be used with small groups, following presentation of the first two components of the program.

#3, #4, #5. Three components designed to give teachers an opportunity to work with each of the types of objectives around which the program is organized; either knowledge, skills, or values. In each case, teachers explore the way in which the particular type of objective is used in the Curriculum Guide, and then apply it to a particular unit.

#6, #7. One component intended to acquaint participants with the Teaching Units and the other, the Kanata Kits, resources which had been developed in support of the curriculum.

This in-service package is intended to be primarily for awareness purposes and is commonly referred to as 'Phase One.' 'Phase Two' became the Mentor Project, which was intended to assist teachers to "work through the complex task of exploring alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (Mentor Proposal, February, 1980, p. 1).

Mentor originated in a proposal prepared by Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, on behalf of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee in the spring of 1978. The proposal was given preliminary approval by the Curriculum Branch of Alberta Education, after costing out by ACCESS-TV (F. Crowther, personal correspondence, 1981).

In December of 1979, two professors in the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, were approached to submit a Proposal for the development of the in-service project. The Proposal was submitted in February of 1980 and development began. Development continued until March 31st of 1981, by which time all development documents had been turned over to ACCESS-TV to begin the process of production.

During the development period (January, 1980 - March, 1981) of this in-service which was intended to assist in the implementation of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum Interim Edition, two rather significant events occurred. First, on April 10, 1980, the Honourable David King, Minister of Education, announced in the Legislature that "effective September 1st, 1981, what is known as the 1978 Social Studies curriculum will be mandatory throughout the Alberta school system."

King referred to "what is known as the 1978 Social Studies curriculum." Its official title, now, is 1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, some significant changes having been made to the 1978 curriculum. The General Value Issue was removed from each grade level topic, and certain choices were eliminated. Whereas previously some topics had several related social issues and sets of competing values, each now had one issue and one set of competing values. The knowledge objectives for each topic are now limited to one generalization, whereas previously there were several. In addition, specific questions to guide inquiry now accompany the generalization for each topic. Some content was made more specific; i.e., Grade 5 Topic C, was previously called "Countries Like Canada: How They Solve Problems." Seven nations were suggested as possibilities for study. In the 1981 version, the topic is called, "Canada's Nearest Neighbour: The United States." However, the steps of the social inquiry model remain the same, and each unit continues to be oriented around a social issue. The one-quarter nonprescribed time also remains intact.

The other significant event during this time period was the announcement by the Minister that an additional 2.2 million dollars was to be put towards social studies implementation (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981, p. 38). The money was to be used for training and release time for 125 teachers around the province, who were to give in-service workshops for other teachers over a five-month period during the 1981/82 school year. The Mentor modules were to be used as training materials for the 125 workshop leaders and were also to be made available for their use in the workshops conducted by them.

While there has been criticism of this implementation scheme by some prominent Alberta educators, such as Dr. Ernest Hodgson, chairman of Edmonton Public School Board, others have praised its intents. Mac Kryzanowski, ATA president, has called it "'a first step' in solving the training problems 'that have plagued Alberta teachers for over a decade' " (Edmonton Journal, May 20, 1981, B2).

Alberta Education has not always demonstrated such an interest in providing provincially developed and controlled in-service programs for the purpose of assisting in curriculum implementation.

A look at The Social Studies Scene, published by the Department of Education, brings to light a concern with implementation of the 1971 curriculum and provides evidence of efforts to meet the in-service needs of teachers at that time.

> October, 1969: Resource personnel for institutes and workshops are available through the Department of Education, the universities, and The Alberta Teachers' Association.
>
> June, 1970: The school year now concluded has witnessed a large number of inservice workshops on the new social studies. Teams from the ATA Social Studies Council, university, and school systems personnel, and members of the Department of Education have conducted more than fifty social studies institutes.
>
> May, 1971: The inservice preparation of teachers for the new social studies is continuing to receive the active attention of the Department of Education consultants and the ATA Social Studies Council. Many teachers have now completed two or three workshops and are finding success in developing their own units of instruction.
>
> September, 1971: Attention will be given to the important task of implementation of the recently developed social studies courses--several of which are being offered for the first time in most schools this year.

However, there is no indication of an effort to provide the breadth or depth of in-service that is presently being attempted. It is probably summed up best by the Tripartite Committee, which, upon its review of in-service practices related to implementation of new and revised programs in Alberta, concluded that

> Traditionally the responsibilities for implementation have been left with the classroom teacher, supported by system supervisors, professional association resources, or consultative assistance drawn from the universities of Alberta and Alberta Education. (1980, p. 7)

Why the increased interest in provincially developed and controlled in-service programs for the purpose of assisting in curriculum implementation?

The answer may lie, at least partly, in a prevailing climate of opinion, very much in support of increased emphasis on in-service as a means of furthering the implementation process. There are a number of signs indicative of this trend.

In March of 1979, Dr. B. K. Johnson, Calgary Board of Education, sent a letter to Dr. E. A. Torgunrud, Director of Curriculum, on behalf of "the people who have responsibility for curriculum and program development in the four large metropolitan school jurisdictions in Alberta" (p. 1). In it he expressed their concern that "without considerable attention to teacher in-service, curriculum changes are doomed to failure" (p. 1) and their conclusion that "the areas of diffusion and implementation have been sadly neglected in the overall planning" (p. 1). He expressed the wish that Dr. Torgunrud would take their concern to the Curriculum

Policies Board and that the Board would "adopt an inviolate principle that new courses will be introduced only when appropriate funds are made available to give teachers sufficient in-service to make the new programs viable in a majority of class rooms in the province" (p. 1).

In October of 1979, the A.T.A. Social Studies Council Executive presented the Minister of Education with a position paper in which it was stated that "the executive of the Social Studies Council feels that the Alberta Department of Education must more fully recognize its responsibility toward in-service associated with changes in curriculum by planning for and engaging in curriculum in-service activities of a long-term and continuing nature" (p. 4).

Four policy recommendations were made. These were:

- "#1. It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt as policy that curriculum planning should always include planning for implementation" (p. 4).

Doing one without the other was likened "to spending all your budget on a car and refusing to spend anything for gas" (p. 4).

- "#2. It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt as policy the encouragement of long-term rather than short-term in-service modes" (p. 4).

The demands of complex curricula cannot be met in one-day workshops.

- "#3. It is recommended that Alberta Education adopt as policy that in-service programs should emphasize people-based support" (p. 5).

In-school visits to other teachers was mentioned as an example of this approach.

- "#4. It is recommended that Alberta Education seek strong support for implementation from administrators" (p. 5).

Rewards, such as public recognition, were mentioned.

As evidence of the continuing interest of the A.T.A. in in-service education, the March 5th, 1980, professional development bulletin was devoted to in-service ("Inservice Education - A Guide to Effective Practice").

The paper defined in-service education, identified its major components, developed a 'state of the art' summary of research and experience in the field, formulated a number of guidelines from this research and experience data base, and used the guidelines to build models appropriate to each of three situations in which in-service might occur.

In 1976 the Curriculum Policies Board was formed, with the mandate to formulate and recommend to the Minister of Education policies concerning curriculum development, implementation, evaluation, and other related matters.

The prevalent concern with matters involving implementation is evident in that the first program recommendation to the Minister from this Board indicated that implementation activities and resources were as significant as program change. This recommendation stressed that provision should be made for teacher in-service and acquisition of necessary resource materials before programs become mandatory. (Tri-Partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 1)

In the spring of 1979, the Curriculum Policies Board approved in principle the following motion:

> That the C.P.B. recommend that Alberta Education, the ATA and the ASTA cooperate to develop an inservice procedure to introduce and maintain new curriculum. (Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 1)

This recommendation was approved by the Minister and, as a result, the Tri-partite Committee on Inservice was established. Its report, entitled Inservice Education For Implementation of New and Revised Programs, was published in October of 1980.

The Tri-partite Committee sought to carry out two major tasks:

> 2.1 Appraise current provisions and needs with respect to inservice for new and revised provincial programs, and
>
> 2.2 Develop models for the delivery of inservice, having regard for equitable distribution of responsibility among the various delivering agencies. (Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 2)

With regard to the first of the above, the Committee found that the structure and process used for curriculum development, which they considered effective for the most part, was not being used for implementation.

Accordingly, a number of recommendations with regard to implementation were made. The most pertinent is the following:

> A proposal to develop a new or revised program should include implementation plans outlining, in appropriate detail, the critical elements in

> putting the new or revised program in place. (Tri-partite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, p. 13)

In other words, program development and program implementation should be planned concurrently.

The committee also developed models for the delivery of in-service. Since the revised social studies curriculum had already been developed, it designed a prototype specifically for its implementation. It recommended that an implementation plan be adopted as soon as was possible, using the prototype as an organizing base. At the same time, it called for "a significant commitment by the province, school systems and profession to the implementation of the new program" (p. 15).

The Minister of Education's announcement in the Legislature, in May of 1980, that $2.2 million was to be put toward providing in-service for every social studies teacher in the province during the 1981/82 school year, would seem to be a direct response to this Tri-partite Committee report.

Another sign of the prevalent interest in in-service was the invitational Conference on Inservice, held by the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, in October of 1980. Participants were Albertans who were, at the time, actively involved in teacher in-service education.

As a result of several days of deliberations, participants generated a number of recommendations for the direction which in-service in the province should take.

These recommendations were later sent to The Honourable David King, Minister of Education, by Dr. J. M. Small, Assistant Dean, Continuing Education. In a letter thanking Dr. Small for forwarding these recommendations, Mr. King said that they would be added to reactions to the Tri-partite Committee report and would be "very useful as decisions are being made concerning the nature of inservice education in Alberta" (February 23, 1981).

The recommendations were as follows:

1. "Inservice needs to become more school-focused."

This was viewed as a means of helping in-service to become a longterm process whereby teachers would be enabled to feel a sense of ownership for the in-service program. It would also encourage opportunities for teachers to learn from each other in a supportive atmosphere. The idea of a teacher 'coach,' as a permanent rotating position, was suggested.

2. "More attention needs to be directed to the nature of the teacher as learner."

The deficit model of in-service, where the teacher is viewed as someone who needs to be shown how to improve, must be abandoned, according to conference participants. Rather, teachers should be viewed as being involved in continuing personal and professional growth. The role of in-service leader might be that of organizing the processes by which teachers direct their own professional development. The suggestion was made that teachers regularly receive a sabbatical after each five years of teaching.

3. "There needs to be an extension of, and a greater awareness of, the potential resources for inservice education."

The value of teacher centres was stressed. The point was also made that an equivalent amount of time, effort, and resources should be put into implementation of new curricula, as is put into development at the present time.

4. "There is a need for a multi-agency, co-ordinated approach to in-service education."

The recommendation was made that Alberta Education, the Alberta Teachers; Association, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, and the universities, establish a body whose function would be to plan and coordinate in-service education in Alberta.

5. "Research needs to be conducted at all levels." (Searle, 1980)

Several areas were identified as being in need of research. These were classroom teaching, the nature of the learner and learning applicable to in-service education, and the longterm effects of in-service programs.

Conclusion

The genesis of the Mentor Project, then, was the result of two major factors.

The first was the failure of the 1971 social studies curriculum to be fully implemented. This situation could not be allowed to occur again.

The second was a climate of opinion calling for an equal amount of attention to be paid to implementation of new curricula, in all subject areas, as had been paid to development in the past. Teacher in-service education was seen as the primary vehicle through which implementation would occur - hence, Mentor.

Opportunistic Research

Reimer, in a 1977 article, advocating greater use of opportunistic research on the part of sociologists, describes such an approach as meaning "that sociologists rely upon their own unique biographies, life experience, and situational familiarities in doing their research" (p. 469).

Researchers

> too frequently neglect "at hand" knowledge and expertise they alone possess in the engineering of their research ventures. They often ignore or treat as ancillary their own unique biographies, life experiences, and situational familiarity when these could opportunistically serve as important sources for research ideas and data. (Reimer, 1977, p. 467)

Despite this, many "opportunistic" studies have been carried out.

Reimer distinguished three varieties of opportunistic research. His categories will be used to guide this discussion.

a. Taking Advantage of Unique Circumstances or Timely Events

Julius Roth conducted research on a hospital from the vantage point of a bed on a ward.

> Just one-half year after getting my Ph.D and a few months after starting my first full-time professional job, I was faced with a long and uncertain stretch in a tuberculosis hospital. My disease was not a complete surprise. I had

> been under observation for tuberculosis for many years, and my condition, although never serious up to this point, had apparently been somewhat unstable. During the course of my schooling I had already spent two long periods in hospitals for observation and rest. Now, with a more frankly active disease than I had had before, it looked as if my career were going to suffer another interruption.
>
> However, during the latter part of my graduate career, my main focus of interest had been the sociology and social psychology of institutions and occupations. Rather than an interruption of my career, a period of hospitalization might be viewed as a research opportunity. A hospital bed would make a good observation post. (Roth, 1963, p. vii)

The March, 1946 issue of the American Journal of Sociology is devoted exclusively to reports by sociologists who used their World War II military experiences as the basis for their research.

More recently, Phillip Butler (1977) has analyzed the "tap code" used by Prisoners of War in North Vietnam, based on eight years of personal experience.

Everett C. Hughes describes how his appointment to the staff of McGill University precipitated his study of French-English relations in Canada.

> I had had no previous interest in Canadian problems and little knowledge of the country. In the several months between my appointment and my departure from Chicago for Montreal, I read a good deal about the French Canadians . . . I decided to study the French Canadians simply because their presence seemed the most interesting fact about

> Montreal and that region. By so slight a joining of circumstances, I picked Canada's other great problem: the mutual adjustment of the two major ethnic groups. (1964, p. 72)

Members of curriculum development projects are beginning to add to the curriculum field through retrospective analysis of their deliberations and the decisions made.

As mentioned previously, at a symposium of the 1977 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Singer and Altschuld presented papers in which they used this technique to describe a curriculum development project in which they were involved as director and assistant director (Wise and Peshkin, 1977, p. 172).

b. Taking Advantage of Familiar Social Situations

Elliot Liebow, in his book, Tally's Corner (1967), tells how he came to describe streetcorner life in an urban ghetto.

> From the very beginning I felt comfortable with the prospect of working with lower-class Negroes. I was born and raised in Washington, D.C. ... My father was a grocer and we lived in rooms above or behind the various stores which he operated. All were in predominantly Negro neighborhoods. (1967, p. 233)

In a 1971 article, Denzin used data from an interlude in which he and his two daughters prepared breakfast, to illustrate how the observer can stand outside his own actions and record them much as he would any other person's behaviour. The difference is that the observer can also note what his thoughts were during the time in which his actions were being recorded.

> This methodology immediately opens for sociological analysis all of one's daily actions and conversations as sources of data on the self and the joint act. Recording one's behavior permits the observer to be both objective and subjective. He can note that he made a specific act at a specific time and place in the company of a certain set of others. But simultaneously he can probe the subjective features of the act by noting what his thoughts were at the time he acted. (p. 169)

c. Taking Advantage of Special Expertise

Ned Polsky's expertise and interest in billiards was the stimulus to conduct research on pool hustlers.

> Billiard playing is my chief recreation. I have frequented poolrooms for over 20 years, and at one poolroom game, three-cushion billiards, am considered a far better than average player. In recent years I have played an average of more than six hours per week in various New York poolrooms, and played as much in the poolrooms of Chicago for most of the eight years I lived there. In the course of traveling I have played occasionally in the major rooms of other cities, such as the poolrooms on Market Street in San Francisco, West 25th Street in Cleveland, West Lexington in Baltimore, and the room on 4th and Main in Los Angeles. (1969, p. 35)

Cuyler (1980) took advantage of knowledge gained through participation as a docent (tour guide) at the Edmonton Art Gallery, to conduct research on the goals and objectives of docents at the Art Gallery of Ontario and the Art Gallery of Hamilton, as well as at Edmonton.

Richardson (1960), in a study of island fishing villages in eastern Canada, used his past as a seaman to gain the respect of the coastal fishermen, thus facilitating entry into the field.

Wolcott (1973) capitalized on his own background experience as a vice-principal and teacher, and his status as a regular faculty member at a university (pp. 12-13) in his ethnographic study of an elementary school principal. He found his experience as a vice-principal, and particularly his position as a university faculty member, to enhance his acceptance on the part of school principals and central office administrators in the district. His teaching experience proved to be an asset in his acceptance by the teachers at the school.

Another benefit was his familiarity with the language used.

> If I was told that someone had "just returned from representing the ESPA at an ASCD workshop at the Hilton to compare SMSG with Greater Cleveland," my only uncertainty was, "which Hilton?" (Wolcott, 1973, p. 12)

As a pastor, Laud Humphreys had spent a great deal of his time counselling homosexuals. It was these experiences which prompted him to conduct the research reported in his book, Tearoom Trade (1970).

As a former teacher of Grade One, and a developer of the curriculum materials which were being used in the classroom in which she was observing, Odynak (1981) brought a wealth of experience to her ethnographic study of a Grade One teacher.

Methodological Advantages of Opportunistic Research

Reimer (1977) mentions three major advantages to opportunistic research. The first is that it facilitates entry into the research setting. The researcher has a genuine purpose for being in the setting, other than his research. "Furthermore, since the researcher knows the expected behavioral routines associated with the setting, it may become an 'open setting' in which all regions are accessible" (Reimer, 1977, p. 474). Lutz and Ramsey (1974) also point out that in addition to the collecting of information as one goes about one's ordinary tasks, the alert investigator can seek out additional data which would not normally come within his sphere of activity.

"A second advantage of this research strategy is that it facilitates rapport between the investigator and the persons being studied" (p. 474). Trust between the members of the group has already been built up. The researcher shares the language and symbolic meanings of the other group members. These enable the investigator to ask meaningful and relevant questions and to understand how best to probe the more sensitive areas.

"A third advantage of an opportunistic research strategy is that it provides for accurate interpretation" (p. 474). According to Reimer, being a member of the group "serves as a built-in truth check" (p. 474). The researcher, to some extent, has been socialized in the same way as other group members and shares their vernacular. He will have a good grasp of which information 'rings true' and which does not.

> Furthermore, the researcher can readily employ introspection and retrospection to aid in his interpretation of other's behavior or behavioral accounts. In this way the researcher is better able to link the expressed statements of members with their actual behavior. (p. 474)

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Participant Observation Procedures

According to McCall and Simmons (1969), participant observation

> . . . involves some amount of genuinely social interaction in the field with the subjects of the study, some direct observation of relevant events, some formal and a great deal of informal interviewing, some systematic counting, some collection of documents and artifacts, and open-endedness in the directions the study takes. (p. 1)

Despite the open-endedness of studies involving participant observation, they can generally be broken down into a number of steps and concerns. These will be discussed here under the following headings: Establishing the Research Design, Gaining Entry and Establishing Good Relations, Taking a Role, Collection of Data, Data Analysis and Findings, and Validity and Reliability.

Establishing the Research Design

According to Smith and Pohland:

> Persons engaged in qualitative research strategies disagree regarding the degree to which there should be _a_ problem, _some_ problem, or _no_ problem that initially guides the observer. (1974, p. 38)

At the very least, the researcher usually begins with a "_sense of something problematic to be investigated_"

(Williamson et al., 1977, p. 38, emphasis in the original).

However, the research design sometimes takes time to develop in its final form. Researchers often set out to conduct their research in a way that is quite different from the mode in which they eventually carry it out.

Liebow (1967), in the first year of his study of a black ghetto, limited his focus to the near proximity of a Carry-out restaurant and to the inhabitants of the street corner in front of it.

Originally he had intended to conduct several related studies during that year,

> each covering is a strategic part of the world of the low-income male. I thought of doing a neighborhood study, then moving on say, to a construction laborer's union, then a bootleg joint, and perhaps rounding these out with a series of genealogies and life histories. (p. 236)

William Whyte (1955) began his study of a slum district with plans to involve ten researchers, but abandoned the idea. Upon reflection, some years later, he speculates that "I found Cornerville life so interesting and rewarding that I no longer felt a need to think in large-scale terms" (1955, p. 286).

After abandoning the ten-man research team idea, he wrote up a number of other research proposals. Again, when reading them some years later, he says, "it seems to me that the most impressive thing about them is their remoteness from the actual study I carried on" (1955, p. 285)

It is not important that the researcher go into the setting with a carefully thought out research design. What is important is that he be willing to explore possibilities within the setting of which he may not even have been aware prior to entry.

Like Whyte (1955), Liebow (1967), and others, this researcher began with a scheme which was much more grandiose than that actually carried out.

In rereading the proposal, data collection was to include participant observation of the meetings of the development committee, participant observation with a group of pilot teachers, use of ad hoc committee meeting tapes and attendance at one or two of the meetings, collection of pertinent documents, formal and informal interviews with members of the development committee, and formal group interviews with one group of pilot teachers.

As with Whyte (1955), my original proposal would have been "the ruination of me" (p. 284). The advice was given, at the proposal presentation (April 8, 1980), to narrow the focus, and consequently plans for participant observation and interviewing of pilot teachers, attendance at ad hoc committee meetings, and formal interviewing of members of the development committee, were all abandoned.

The researcher still intended to use ad hoc committee tapes, since all of these tapes were in the possession of the developers. In fact, at that time, the developers were operating under the assumption that they were the owners of these tapes, since the arrangement was that the person who did the taping gave the tapes to the developers at the end of each ad hoc committee meeting. The developers were supposed to give empty tapes in exchange at some later date.

However, when formal permission to use the tapes was requested, it was denied. Therefore, the focus of the research became the development committee, where it likely should have been from the beginning.

Gaining Entry

This study was a form of opportunistic research, coming under Reimer's (1977) category of "Taking advantage of unique circumstances" in the spirit of Julius Roth (1963) in his hospital bed or Phillip Butler (1977) in his North Vietnam prison cell.

In this case, the researcher was already one of six members of the Mentor development committee when the decision was made to conduct a study of the decision-making processes of the committee, using a variation of participant observation methodology.

As Bollens and Marshal point out, "the easiest way to get access to a group is to be part of that group already" (1973, p. 49). They advise students to capitalize on the research opportunities offered by groups to which they already belong.

Reimer (1977), too, indicates that one of the chief advantages of this type of research is the way in which it facilitates entry into the setting, since the researcher has a legitimate purpose, other than his research, for being there.

Lutz and Ramsey (1974) discuss a possible disadvantage of the situation where the researcher is already a member of the group which is to be investigated.

> If one owns a role in the society the problem of entry is easily achieved but his access to competing cliques or to other hierarchial levels may be made even more difficult. If one is an outsider seeking permission to enter, the above two problems may be less difficult once initial permission is granted. But access to informal structure will be more difficult. In any case attention to these problems is indicated. (p. 7)

In the case of this researcher, access to competing cliques or to other hierarchial levels was not a problem, since the focus was on a small group of six developers.

Taking a Role

Gold (1971)[7] identified four roles for the researcher conducting field work. These are complete participant, participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant, and complete observer.

Complete Participant

The complete participant role involves concealment of one's true purposes and the pretense of being a member of the group one is observing. This approach is seldom used (Erikson, 1970).

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[7] Gold's work is an extension of the thinking of Junker (1960).

Laud Humphreys relates his use of this approach in Tearoom Trade (1970). He was able to conduct research on homosexual activity in public washrooms by assuming the role of voyeur and performing the essential function of lookout. The role of voyeur enabled him to observe the homosexual activities, while his function as lookout enabled him to surreptitiously record license plate numbers, which he used to locate names and addresses. Later, he and his assistant interviewed the individuals whom he had observed, in their homes, under the guise of conducting a health survey. He altered his appearance, and in no way indicated that he was aware of their homosexual activities.

Lofland and Lejeune (1970) describe a field experiment in which individual sociology graduate students attended Alcoholics Anonymous meetings in order to determine whether newcomers were received differentially depending on their apparent social class.

A variation of this role is the type of study where the researcher actually joins in a group and serves as a genuine member (as opposed to the pretense of being a homosexual or an alcoholic, to use the examples already mentioned). Donald Roy took this role in a number of jobs involving various types of blue-collar work in factories, construction gangs, and oil fields (1970). Dalton (1959) worked as a manager.

These roles still involve a degree of

of deception in that the investigator's research purposes are not revealed.

The chief advantage of the role of complete participant lies in the fact that it allows the researcher to observe aspects of behaviour which might otherwise be missed (whether through lack of opportunity or deliberate concealment) by the individual who has identified himself as an observer. In Humphreys' case he would not have had the opportunity to observe at all if he had not assumed the role of complete participant, since the homosexual activity did not take place in the presence of anyone suspected of being a policeman or a "straight."

Gold (1971) mentions two dangers of this role. At one extreme the researcher may be so self-conscious about revealing his identity that it may hamper his ability to play the role of participant. At the other extreme he may become so involved in the role that it is incorporated into his self-conceptions, thus biasing his observations.

Another obvious disadvantage to the use of this role is that the researcher cannot record events in the presence of those he is observing. Therefore, he must rely on his memory and any surreptitious notetaking which he might be able to do.

This can be sheer hard work. Whyte (1969) says, "I can well remember a period when Roy was putting in 10 hours a day at the plant and two hours a night at the typewriter after coming home" (p. 43).

There are certain ethical considerations involved in the taking of this role as well. Whyte (1969), in a discussion of this role (which he calls participant observation), skirts the issue of the deception involved:

> Does this mean that the intellectual interests of the participant observer are completely unknown to those he is observing? Not necessarily. The workers around Roy knew that he had a good deal more education than they, and they seemed to assume that he had fallen on hard times and needed the job and in addition had some intellectual interest in what factory life was all about. Some workers and members of management in the steel mill knew that Dalton was taking courses for an advanced degree at the University of Chicago. They cast him in the respected role of a student working his way through school--which indeed he was. (pp. 41-42)

Both the Humphreys (1970) and the Lofland and Lejeune (1970) studies have received a great deal of criticism on ethical grounds.

Davis (1970) criticizes the Lofland and Lejeune study on three grounds. First, neither the A.A. members nor their leaders were given the option of whether or not to participate in the experiment. Secondly, "posing as alcoholic newcomers" made light of the values, modes of operation and mission of A.A. Thirdly, this approach avoids the dues which the researcher must pay: i.e., "the conscious opening up of self to the possibility of rebuttal, disaffection, divided loyalties, compromising attachments and difficult disclosures; the price of engagement as opposed to that of mere doing" (p. 274).

Roth (1970), in an article which attempts to take the issue further than Davis, or Lofland in his response to Davis, has postulated that all research is secret to some degree for the following reasons:

> 1. The researcher usually does not know everything he is looking for himself when he first starts out and structures his study to some extent as he goes along. Some of the things he finds of interest to study as the research goes on are things which the subjects might have objected to if they had been told about it in the beginning.
>
> 2. In many types of study of social behavior, the researcher does not want the subjects' behavior influenced by his knowledge of what the observer is interested in.
>
> 3. Even if the subjects of a study are given as precise and detailed an explanation of the purpose and procedure of the study as the investigator is able to give them, the subjects will not understand all the terms of the research in the same way that the investigator does . . . Therefore, even in those cases where the researcher has made a deliberate effort to explain to his subjects just what he is going to do, he will frequently find them acting surprised when he actually goes ahead and does it. (pp. 278-279)

Participant-As-Observer

When the researcher acts in the participant-as-observer mode, he makes other members of the group aware of his dual role. However, the role of researcher is subordinate to the role of participant.

This role is often used in community studies, where the relatively lengthy periods of interaction allow for trust to build up between the researcher and the informants and the researcher can observe changes that occur over time.

William F. Whyte describes his use of this role in Street Corner Society (1955). This involved living in an urban slum for a period of several years and becoming a member of a street corner gang.

Problems inherent in this approach are the danger of over-identification of the researcher with group members and vice-versa. The researcher may "go native" and lose his research perspective. The other possibility is that the informant may identify with the researcher to the extent that he is not able to continue functioning as an informant. He becomes too much of an observer (Gold, 1971).

Another problem, not mentioned by Gold, but sometimes encountered in studies where the observer takes the complete participant or participant-as-observer role, is the confrontation with a decision as to the extent, if any, he will engage in activities which are illegal or which he considers to be immoral.

Whyte encountered this situation at one point during his three-year sojourn in Cornerville. In order to obtain an inside view of politics in the district, he became a volunteer worker in a political organization. This brought him face-to-face with an ethical situation which he had not prepared himself to meet.

On election day he was asked to "repeat," a practice practice involving voting at more than one polling place.

He voted three extra times for his candidate. At the last polling place he voted in the name of a Frank Petrillo, a forty-five year old Sicilian fisherman, who stood five feet nine. Whyte, being twenty-three years old and six feet tall, experienced some misgivings, but went ahead with the deception anyway. He was challenged, but a "co-operative" warden allowed him to leave.

> That was my performance on election day. What did I gain from it? I had seen through firsthand personal experience how repeating was accomplished. But this was really of very little value, for I had been observing these activities at quite close range before, and I could have had all the data without taking any risk. Actually, I learned nothing of research value from the experience, and I took a chance of jeopardizing my whole study. While I escaped arrest, these things are not always fixed as firmly as the politician's henchman think they are. A year later, when I was out of town at election time, somebody was actually arrested for voting in *my* name . . .
>
> The experience posed problems that transcended expediency. I had been brought up as a respectable, law-abiding, middle-class citizen. When I discovered that I was a repeater, I found my conscience giving me serious trouble. This was not like the picture of myself that I had been trying to build up . . . . I had to learn that, in order to be accepted by the people in a district, you do not have to do everything just as they do it. . . .
>
> I had to learn that the field worker cannot afford to think only of learning to live with others in the field. He has to continue living with himself. If the participant observer finds himself engaging in behavior that he has learned to think of as immoral, then he is likely to begin to wonder what sort of a person he is after all. (1955, pp. 314-317)

Whyte, upon reflection, came to the conclusion that he had made the wrong decision.

Roy (1970) describes a situation in which he was able to effect a compromise. As part of a study of labour union organizing campaigns, he had been observing the interaction between "scabs" and strikers at a midnight shift change. Following the departure of the strikebreakers, one of the strikers observed that a number of cars were unaccounted for, their owners likely waiting inside until the strikers left. The decision was made to pretend to leave, hoping that this move would cause the state patrolmen who were in attendance to leave as well. Then the strikers could return and deal with the remaining strikebreakers without the hindrance of being observed.

> When the rocks started to fly, I found myself in an awkward situation. What if the police weren't as dumb as the strikers thought they were, saw through the ruse, and returned to pack us off to jail? What was I doing, at my age and with all those diplomas, shoulder to shoulder with a bunch of men throwing rocks at a bunch of other men in the middle of the night? I didn't have time to go to jail. I had to get back to Durham no later than the next day, back to my classes, to my eager students. Should I make a brisk dash for the cover of yon cornfield before the police returned? Could I make it, before getting shot, if they should return immediately? Surely the first car in the caravan of dented bodies and fenders would have reached a telephone by now. But if I streaked for the cornfield, the strikers would see it, and such behavior would mark the end of my study of union-management relations in these parts, perhaps in the entire South. Maybe it would be better if I were to start throwing things myself, before the strikers noticed my inactivity and interpreted it as anti-union behavior; . . . I made my decision. Sweating freely--it was a warm night--I ran back and forth with the strikers, stooping and swaying and swinging my arms in a balletic imitation of a man throwing rocks. Finally the last car screamed around the bend in the road. With my companions I made a rapid but dignified dash for my own automobile. The cops did not show up. (Roy, 1970, p. 242)

Observer-As-Participant

The observer-as-participant role calls for relatively more formal observation than the two roles just mentioned. The researcher's purposes are made publicly known at the outset and it is the role of observer which takes priority.

There is less risk of "going native" when this research role is assumed. However, because the observer does not function as a true participant in the ongoing activities, the possibility of misunderstanding those he observes, and in turn, that they will misunderstand him, looms large.

Bain discusses both of these problems in an article entitled "The Researcher's Role: A Case Study."

Bain used the milieu of a laundry plant to study the social skills required by certain jobs. At one point in his study the volume of business was down and a few workers were laid off. At that particular stage he was watching particular workers and timing their interactions.

> Was I a spy from the university? Was I trying to find out who talked too much to determine who were the least efficient employees? . . . But these were some of the suspicions which various persons began to entertain. Hostility and suspicion on the part of certain workers became open and obvious. (1960, p. 149)

Bain also incurred problems because of a misunderstanding on his part as to how best to approach people for the information which he needed.

He tried to administer a sociometric questionnaire, with little success.

> I was forced, therefore, to change the method somewhat and ask each worker, instead, merely to choose from the list the ten persons he or she liked best. I further thought that if I could interview the workers in the privacy of their homes I could secure better cooperation. Therefore I went to the members of other work groups, requesting permission to interview them at home . . . .
>
> Two days later I received word that a certain worker was "spreading a rumor." The rumor was to this effect: "Well, I've finally found out what Mr. Bain is here for--he's going to try to find out who likes and dislikes each other here!" While this was literally true, it was hardly the interpretation I wanted. (1960, pp. 147-148)

Complete Observer

The complete observer remains outside the participant role. He attempts to observe in ways which make it unnecessary for participants to take him into account.

This involves a range of roles with, at one extreme, the observer hiding behind a one-way mirror, to reducing participation to a nonverbal level and maintaining a psychological detachment from one's subjects. Occupations such as janitor, cleaning woman and elevator operator have been mentioned as relatively invisible roles for a researcher to assume (Pearsall, 1970).

The role of complete observer involves the least chance of "going native" (Gold, 1971, p. 261). At the same time it carries the greatest risk of misunderstanding the observed. The observer is not in a position to request qualifications of statements or to ask further questions which his observations have brought to mind. There is also danger of ethnocentric or egocentric rejection of data because of failure to view it in the same way as one's subjects (Gold, 1971; Pearsall, 1970).

Gold points out that this role alone is rarely the dominant one employed by a researcher. It is sometimes employed as a means to reconnoitre a social setting in preparation for more intensive study in another field role.

Williamson et al. make the point that the researcher does not necessarily assume one particular role for the duration of a study. Different situations and different respondents may mean that it is most expedient for the researcher to assume a different role (1977, p. 207).

Laud Humphreys (1970) provides an example of this. For the greater part of his study of homosexual behaviour in public washrooms he took the role of complete participant. However, after he was able to identify what he calls his "intensive dozen" (p. 36), he revealed his research purposes to those men and was able to interview them. At this point, with these individuals, he was acting in the role of observer-as-participant.

Influence of Subjects on Role Taken

Another point to be made is that the subjects of the study have a bearing on the role taken by the researcher.

Various factors in this regard may hinder the researcher from assuming the role which he considers to be strategically the most optimal. For instance, if subjects lack a conception of the observer role they will assimilate him into a role with which they are familiar such as a reporter, missionary, or someone who plans to write a book.

"Subjects always 'locate' researchers in some meaningful frame or context and relate to them accordingly" (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 207). Factors such as age, sex, ethnic group, physical attributes, race, and educational background can all have an effect on the way in which subjects perceive the researcher.

Rosalie Wax, a Caucasian, spent two years in a Japanese Relocation Center and a center for "disloyal"

Japanese during World War II. In her case, her race was the factor which had the greatest effect on the way in which she was perceived by subjects.

In her analysis, written twelve years later, she had this to say about the roles to which she was assigned by subjects:

> Her discomfort was increased by the fact that her potential informants had a series of crippling roles ready and waiting for her. To them she was at best a well-meaning but ignorant pest in whose presence one had to keep a strict watch on one's tongue. At worst she was a clever and hypocritical spy for the administration, trying, by kindness, to lead them to betray themselves or their fellows.
>
> Desperately she tried to see herself as "a person to whom one gave information" while everyone about her regarded her as "a person to whom one gave no information." (1960, p. 175)

According to Vidich and Bensman (1960), the field worker in a small town "is accorded the status of an F.B.I. agent or Communist infiltrator depending on his name, origin, dress, or accent" (pp. 193-194).

They found, too, that the social status of respondents had a profound effect on the perceived social status of the researcher.

> Simultaneously he may be respected because he is educated; feared because he is an outsider; disdained by the upper class and envied by the middle class; rejected as a long-hair by the uneducated and accepted by those of learning; a confidant to some, a non-involved friend to others, and a downright snooper to still others. (p. 193)

Summary

The researcher conducting field work may adopt one or more of several roles which are available. The role taken will vary according to the degree to which it is "openly defined as a research role or . . . concealed beneath a performance of some existing role in the organization" (McCall & Simmons, p. 30). The choice is dependent upon the type of situation into which the researcher wishes to gain access, and the kinds of information desired once entry has been obtained, and certain characteristics of the researcher as a person.

Each role has its attendant advantages and disadvantages and the researcher weighs these carefully in making a choice.

Variations of the participant-as-observer and observer-as-participant roles are most commonly chosen. The complete participant role has been criticized on ethical grounds. It is also extremely hard work, as the researcher must fulfill all of the obligations of a participant while in the field and those of an observer on his own time.

The complete observer role is not very practical in terms of obtaining data which is free of egocentric or ethnocentric bias.

The choice of role is extremely important.

As McCall and Simmons (1969) point out,

> The role which he claims--or to which he is assigned by the subjects--is perhaps the single most important determinant of what he will be able to learn. Every role is an avenue to certain types of information but is also an automatic barrier to certain other types. The role assumed by the observer largely determines where he can go, what he can do, whom he can interact with, what he can inquire about, what he can see, and what he can be told. (p. 29)

Role Taken In This Study

Whyte (1969) has said:

> The most intimate view of the organization is secured by the participant observer: the investigator who gathers his data while serving as a genuine member of the organization. (p. 41)

The role described above would be that of complete participant, according to Gold's (1971) continuum of roles--complete participant, participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant, and complete observer--because Whyte is referring to a situation where the investigator is a genuine member of a group, but does not reveal his research purposes.

The role used in this study would come under the heading, participant-as-observer. Characteristics of the role chosen that makes this title appropriate are as follows:

1. other members of the development committee were aware of the dual role of the researcher,
2. during meetings and other interactions the role of researcher was subordinate to that of developer (participant).

While the title, "participant-as-observer" has been chosen to describe the role taken, a more precise pinpointing of the role of the researcher would be at some point on the continuum between that of complete participant and participant-as-observer.

There are two reasons for pinpointing the role of the researcher in this location. First, the term, "participant-as-observer," as it is commonly used in studies, seems to emphasize observation more than participation, or, at least, to use the term "participation" in a sense other than meaning serving as a genuine member of the milieu in which the research takes place.

For instance, Wolcott (1973) uses the participant-as-observer role in his ethnographic study of an elementary school principal. He did not act as a principal. Rather, he followed the principal around as he went about his daily activities, staying in the background and writing notes.

Boag (1980) also took a participant-as-observer role. This, again, involved observation. He did not take the role of a teacher implementing a curricular change proposal. He observed two teachers doing so.

Field (1980) took this role in her study of four public health nurses. She accompanied the nurses on their daily visits to clients, avoiding active participation unless asked a direct question. She did not operate, herself, in the role of a nurse, other than to the extent of being introduced as such to clients.

As McCall and Simmons (1969) point out, few studies have employed the method by which the "scientist virtually performs the role of a genuine member and counts as very critical data his resulting subjective experience" (p. 1).

The fact then that studies that rely more on observation than participation are called participant-as-observer studies would seem to push this particular study, in which the researcher performed all the functions of a genuine member, along the continuum to "complete participant." However, there was no degree of deception involved. From the time that the decision was made to undertake the study, other members of the development committee were made aware of it. Therefore, the observer cannot be called a "complete participant" in the sense that Gold uses the term.

For these reasons, then, it can be seen that the role taken in this particular study would fall on the continuum somewhere between the roles of complete participant and participant-as-observer.

Collection of Data

Participant observation employs a kind of "methodological eclecticism" (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 200). While observation "is what the method begins with, ends with, and uses throughout" (Pearsall, 1970, p. 345), such studies employ other means which are suitable to the purposes of the researcher. These might include such techniques as personal introspection, interviewing, document analysis, and questionnaires.

"Events are recorded by word description, notational symbols, graphs, flow charts, movies, sound tapes, or other devices according to the degree of detail and precision needed" (Pearsall, 1970, p. 345).

Cusick (1973), in his participant observation study of high school students, used six major approaches. These were attendance at those classes and meetings which were attended by the students whom he was particularly observing, formal and informal interviewing, use of records (honour roll, activity lists, club membership lists, past yearbooks, and old newspapers), and observations, which were recorded by means of field notes at the end of each day.

In her participant observation study of four nurses, Field (1980) recorded nurse-client visits by means of a tape recorder and field notes. She interviewed the nurses quite extensively, conducting four formal interviews and a number of informal ones. Documents were collected as well.

Boag's (1980) doctoral dissertation was a participant observation study concerned with description and explanation of two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal. He relied on a tape recorder to record classroom interactions, supplemented by field notes, both formal and informal interviewing of the teachers, and some collection of pertinent documents.

Odynak (1981), in her ethnography of a teacher implementing a curricular innovation, relied mainly on observation and the recording of field notes, with some interviews. She used a tape recorder at times, but found that it was not particularly effective in picking up classroom interactions.

Wolcott (1973), in his ethnographic study of an elementary school principal, collected documents (routine notices, meeting agendas and handouts, copies of school records, reports, and correspondence), interviewed, carried out mini-studies of activity and social interaction patterns of the principal, solicited pupil impressions by means of a sentence completion exercise, and distributed a ten-page questionnaire to teachers. He recorded observations by means of field notes and used a tape recorder during interviews and occasionally during meetings.

While some researchers advise that it is inappropriate to take notes in the presence of subjects (Lofland, 1970; Schatzman & Strauss, 1973; Bogdan & Taylor, 1975), Wolcott (1975) tells us that, "I am inclined to carry my notebook everywhere and to write in it constantly, even intrusively, while people are talking to me or in my presence" (p. 122).

Some participant observation studies are highly dependent upon formal interviewing, using observation as a means to gather data from which questions are generated. Other researchers seem to be in agreement with Doc's advice to William Whyte.

> "Go easy on that 'who,' 'what,' 'why,' 'when,' 'where,' stuff, Bill. You ask those questions, and people will clam up on you. If people accept you, you can just hang around, and you'll learn the answers in the long run without even having to ask the questions;" (1955, p. 303)

Whyte found this advice to be valid.

> As I sat and listened, I learned the answers to questions I would not even have had the sense to ask if I had been getting my information on an interview basis. (Whyte, 1955, p. 303)

This researcher, too, took Doc's advice to heart. Naturally, questions were asked, but not during formal interviews; rather, during hundreds of conversations over coffee in the staff and graduate student lounge, over lunch, walking down the hall after meetings, in the car on the way to pilot sessions, and so on.

As a developer, this researcher took part in all of the activities involved in that role. This included such diverse activities as attendance at development committee meetings, working either individually or with other members of the development committee in writing segments of the in-service program, pilotting modules with groups of teachers, learning to operate a camera in preparation for filming demonstration lessons, editting videotapes, and observing demonstration lessons.

Development committee meetings from April 11, 1980 to March 25, 1981, were recorded by means of a cassette tape recorder. It was set in the middle of the table prior to each meeting. The table was usually so cluttered with books, papers, and other assorted items that the tape recorder was relatively unobtrusive. For the most part participants did not seem particularly aware of it. However, from time to time a comment would be made.

On one occasion, a developer, in jest, had enlightened us with his definition of a good teacher as, "someone who sells crap to kids so that they like it" (Aug. 26, 1980). The reaction was to remember the presence of the tape recorder and its purpose.

> Brad - She's going to write snide comments in her thesis about what we think of teachers based on these remarks.
>
> Susan - ( )
>
> Brad - I deny it. It's not our perspective. (Said directly into the mike)
>
> Ted - Just remember that we're trying to set this up so we're all on your committee, so God help you, Sue!
>
> (Aug. 26, 1980)

The majority of the development committee meetings were transcribed in full. By the time some of the later meetings came to be transcribed, categories had been ascertained, and as a consequence, only relevant portions of the tapes were transcribed. In the end, typed transcriptions totalled approximately 700 pages.

On a very few occasions, the researcher had other commitments and was unable to be present at development committee meetings. On those occasions, the usual procedure was to send the tape recorder along to the meeting with another member of the development committee. On one occasion, which involved a meeting between the Project Coordinator from ACCESS and two of the developers, one developer kept notes for me!

Three pilot sessions were taped as well. These tapes were found to be extremely difficult to transcribe because of simultaneous interaction of several small groups. Twenty-nine pages were transcribed from one pilot session. The tapes from the other sessions were impossible to transcribe. Since these tapes were so difficult to use, and the interactions during pilotting were not especially pertinent to the research, no other tapes were made of pilot sessions.

Notes were made during meetings only when it seemed necessary to record relevant meanings that would not appear in the actual words on tape; i.e., if a decision constituted a significant change in direction.

Some casual conversations (informal interviews?) between the researcher and one or more of the other developers, which took place outside of meetings, were recorded as soon after they occurred as possible.

By the end of the fifteen month period in which the development committee was most active, an extensive collection of documents had been amassed as well. This collection consisted of proposal drafts, modules and lesson plans in their various drafts, correspondence, contracts, completed Feedback Forms from pilotting sessions, summaries of results of pilotting sessions, and copies of various external documents that were pertinent to the development process or implementation of the in-service program (News Releases from Alberta Education, the report of the Tripartite Committee, articles in Alberta Report, the Edmonton Journal, and The Representative, etc.).

Two separate filing systems were kept, with Mentor modules filed in both systems. The first system was a month-by-month record with documents kept in the file for the month in which they were obtained or developed. The second system involved a separate file for the successive drafts of each module. Four or five revisions of each was common, with one module going through ten revisions before being sent to ACCESS.

Data Analysis and Findings

> The heart of an analysis . . . . involves the researcher's application of a small number of well-selected concepts to show his or her reader the dimensions of social life reflected in the data. If successful, an analysis will cause us to see relations between pieces of data that might at first seem wholly discreet. In addition, the discovered elements of social life uncovered through an analysis of the collected data may challenge, specify, or confirm some already existing theoretical view of social life. (Williamson et al., 1977, p. 213)

Boag (1980) identified fourteen propositions which outlined the two teachers' perceptions of curricular change proposals. These propositions represented a number of constructs which established an interpretive framework and judgment criteria for their decision-making. The orientation of the change proposal was not matched by the perspectives of the teachers. Therefore, the message of the proposal was changed to suit the teachers' perceptions of their classroom situation, rather than used as intended.

Field (1980) found that each of the four nurses had a perspective of nursing which she used as a model to guide her practice. Each nurse's own life experience determined the shape of her model and these models were relatively resistant to change. Stages of data analysis were as follows: listing incidents, generating tentative propositions, confirming or disproving propositions, developing categories, and model building (p. 68).

McLeod (1976), in his participant observation study of collective bargaining between the Alberta Teachers' Association and local school boards, used Erving Goffman's dramaturgic analogy and its game derivative to describe and analyze the data. Collective bargaining was categorized into backstage and frontstage performance. Backstage interaction involved the provincial government, the Alberta Teachers' Association and the Alberta School Trustees' Association. Frontstage performance was

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associated with local and regional collective bargaining. The public becomes the audience. Involvement in frontstage performance by school trustees, school board administrators, and consultants was analyzed using the ideal-type construct. Factors were categorized according to stage, backdrop, and potential props. One aspect of the game model derivative--exploitation--was used to analyze lobbying with provincial authorities.

Analysis of data in this study was broken down into four steps, loosely based on the conceptual framework of Decker Walker's "naturalistic model."

The first step involved analysis of the platform of the development committee.

> The word "platform" is meant to suggest both a political platform and something to stand on. The platform includes an idea of what is and a vision of what ought to be, and these guide the curriculum developer in determining what he should do to realize his vision. (Walker, 1971, p. 52).

The first Mentor Proposal, was considered to be the most suitable place to look for a statement of the platform. The subsequent drafts of the Proposal, including Draft #3, which was the "official version," had been revised on the basis of feedback from members of the ad hoc committee. Consequently, they would not provide a true picture of the platform of the developers.

Statements from Draft #1 of the Proposal were placed into the following categories: View of Social Studies, View of Teacher, View of Children, View of In-Service, View of Resources, and View of Evaluation.

Walker's (1975) categories were Art, Art Education, Teachers, Children, Curriculum, Materials and Activities, and Evaluation.

Walker was analyzing the platform of a group developing an art curriculum. He broke the art aspects of his analysis down into Art and Art education. Since very few statements concerning social studies or social studies education were found in the Mentor Proposal, both of these categories were included in View of Social Studies.

Curriculum was changed to View of In-Service since it was an in-service program which was being developed.

The kinds of statements which would be found under Walker's heading, Materials and Activities, would belong, in this system of categorization, under either View of Resources or View of In-Service. Resources was considered to be a more appropriate heading than Materials because it is wider in scope, including such factors as "time." Any statements concerning activities in the Mentor Proposal were concerned with in-service activities and were categorized under View of In-Service. Therefore, Activities was eliminated entirely as a heading.

Step Two of the analysis involved constructing a description of the type of in-service program one might expect based on the statements drawn from Draft #1 of the Proposal.

Step Three was an analysis of deliberation. Schwab describes deliberation as follows:

> treats both ends and means and must treat them as mutually determining one another. It must try to identify, with respect to both, what facts may be relevant. It must try to ascertain the relevant facts in the concrete case. It must try to identify the desiderata in the case. It must generate alternative solutions. It must take every effort to trace the branching pathways of consequences which may flow from each alternative and affect desiderata. It must then weigh alternatives and their costs and consequences against one another, and choose, not the right alternative, for there _is_ no such thing but the best one. (1969, pp. 20-21)

The intent of the application of analysis to the deliberation differs somewhat in this research from that of Walker. Walker intensively analyzed several consecutive hours of meetings. This thesis was concerned rather with analysis of the meetings over a period of a year (April, 1980 - March, 1981). The longterm nature of the project was the focus, rather than intensive analysis of one or more segments.

Walker identified four types of "deliberative episodes." He defines a "deliberative episode" as "a consecutive portion of transcript having a degree of unity and coherence and being separable from the surrounding discourse by subject and style of discussion" (1975, p. 112).

Issues involved "argumentation concerning what course of action the project or some part of it should undertake or follow" (1975, p. 112). Explications were "little lectures by one or more knowledgeable member of the Project explaining some situations to his colleagues" (1975, p. 112). Reports involved "recounting of the activities of some member or subgroup for the information and enlightenment of the others" (1975, p. 112), and brainstorms were episodes involving "rapid fire generation of suggestions for solving some problem or coping with some situation" (1975, p. 112).

There was a second phase of analysis applied to the discourse. This analysis was applied to discourse which was essential to the decision-making process, and yet, could not be categorized according to Walker's deliberative episodes.

This discourse was categorized into these episodes: organization, which was an episode devoted to keeping the development running smoothly; presentation, which involved the sharing, by an individual or subgroup of work completed; update, which involved a reminder, by one or more members, to the others, of what had been accomplished to date, and sometimes a listing of what had yet to be done; and invention, the actual production of materials.

According to Walker, "the heart of the deliberative process is the justification of choices" (1971, p. 55). He delineates two sources of justification for decisions that are made. One is circumstances. He says, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice" (1971, p. 55). If decisions cannot be justified by circumstances, then reference is made to principles which are "expressions of a shared view of the way life can and should be" (1971, p. 55). Choices are justified on the ground that anyone who held those principles would make the same decisions.

It was noted, in reading the transcripts, that circumstances seemed to be a frequent justification for decisions. More than one sort of appeal to circumstances was evident. Furthermore, these appeals to circumstances seemed to have a social role. They seemed to be a uniting factor within the development committee.

A third phase of analysis was therefore added to the deliberation portion of the model. This third phase of analysis involved the application of Berger's concept of "plausibility structures" to the data.

Werner (1977) has provided a delineation of these plausibility structures and discussed them in relation to their application to social studies programs. The three plausibility structures chosen as suitable to be applied to the transcripts of the development committee meetings were legitimations[8], appeals to significant others, and nihilism.

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[8] Werner (1977) used the term "legitimization" and Berger (1969), the term "legitimation" for the same plausibility structure. Berger's term will be used here.

Legitimations are explanations "designed to convince people that what they are being told to do is not only the prudent thing, but also the only right and salutary one" (Berger, 1969, p. 44).

In this case, the legitimations were not built into a social studies program, but were used by the developers to "legitimize" their decisions.

The plausibility structure, appeals to significant others, involves the use of experts "to lend support and authority to the position taken by program developers" (Werner, 1977, p. 106). Significant others mentioned by Werner are "those official reality definers such as pilot teachers, educational psychologists, disciplinarians, authors of best selling books, and politicians" (1971, p. 106).

Nihilism involves the negation of other interpretations of reality. "Methods of nihilism whereby alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status and are set apart as deviant are based generally on the assumption that anyone who does not hold to a particular belief is in some way inferior or suspect" (W[illegible]ner, 1977, p. 115).

Step Four was an analysis of the Design of the program. This involved two substeps.

Walker distinguishes between implicit and explicit design. The implicit design is made up of "unconsidered choices" (1971, p. 54), those courses of action which are adopted automatically without consideration of alternatives. Those decisions that are made after consideration of alternatives constitute the program's explicit design.

The first substep, then, involved breaking down the Mentor program into the major implicit and explicit decisions represented within it.

The second substep involved an analysis of the design, using the same categories applied to the platform. This step is not discussed by Walker. The concern of this thesis was to look at changes over time. Therefore, it was necessary to apply the same categories to both the platform and the products of the development committee in order to see what changes did occur over time. This was not necessarily Walker's concern.

Validity and Reliability

According to Bruyn (1966, p. 255) reliability is based upon two assumptions. The first assumption is that other investigators should be able to repeat the study by using the same categories, the same procedures, the same criteria of correctness, and the same perspective as the original researcher. The second assumption is that, by using the above, it is possible for other investigators to perceive the same meanings.

Others reject this as being more appropriate to the quantitative than to the qualitative paradigm (Boag, 1980, pp 59-60). While quantitative studies employ standardized instruments to which questions of reliability can be appropriately addressed, studies employing participant observation do not prestructure the inquiries with _a priori_ categories. Rather, the "focus is on a valid representation of what is happening, not at the expense of reliable measurement, but without allowing reliability to determine the nature of the data" (Boag, 1980, p. 60).

Honigmann even goes so far as to say:

> The personal approach rests on the premise that under certain circumstances value lies in the very uniqueness and nonrepeatability of a particular investigator's version of reported events or in the conclusions drawn from those events. (1976, p. 244)

The categories used in this study were chosen as applicable in view of the data which had been gathered, rather than having been established in _a priori_ fashion.

This study probably has more reliability than much qualitative research because most of the data were taken from tape recordings of interactions. Transcripts were typed in verbatim fashion from the tapes. Hence, researcher bias or selective perception could not enter into this aspect of data collection, as it inevitably must in the writing of field notes, for instance.

The categories used have been described. It would be possible for another researcher to apply the same categories to the same data. It should also be possible, in applying the same categories, to perceive the same meanings.

The aspect of this study which would be impossible to replicate, as with every participant observation study, would be the day-to-day interactions and observations of the participant observer. Even if this particular committee were to continue in existence, that particular part of its lifespan is over. It cannot be repeated. Another researcher, in taking the role of participant observer, would not have the same experience.

As for validity, Bruyn's six indices of subjective adequacy are important factors in the making of interpretations in any participant observation study. These are:

1. Time: ". . . the more time an individual spends with a group, the more likely it is that he will obtain an accurate interpretation of the social meanings its members live by."

This observer spent eighteen months as a member of the Mentor development committee.

2. Place: ". . . the closer the observer works geographically to the people he studies, the more accurate should be his interpretations."

To some extent, the Department of Elementary Education is a place, in that it is located in various offices in the Faculty of Education building on the University of Alberta campus. The social studies offices are located, in close proximity to one another, on the second floor of the building.

For the first five months of the project, the development committee met wherever there was space available. This included a seminar room, members' offices, and the staff and grad student lounge (the noise here making it very difficult to tape).

In June, one member became weary of carrying paper here and there and insisted that we find a room to call "home." Such a room was found on the second floor near the social studies offices. Someone even produced a sign saying "Mentor Associates," which was posted on the door.

This room became our "place" for the following year. Meetings were held here and it was used when pairs or subgroups met to develop materials.

3. Social circumstance: ". . . the more varied the status opportunities within which the observer can relate to his subjects, and the more varied the activities he witnesses, the more likely the observer's interpretations will be true."

The observer, as developer, took part in all of the diverse activities involved in that role. These have been listed previously. In addition to activities directly involved with being a developer, there were lunches, discussions over coffee, parties for grad students who had passed their orals, etc.

4. Language: ". . . the more familiar the observer is with the language of his subjects, the more accurate should be his interpretations."

The observer was a grad student one year and a sessional lecturer the next in the Department of Elementary Education. All of the members of the development committee were part of this department. Social studies was the specialty of each member. A common "language" was a natural outgrowth of this commonality of interest. There was a common language before Mentor ever began. However, common language grew out of Mentor as well. Such words and phrases as "module," "inquiry model," "ad hoc ommitttee," "classroom demonstrations," "overview," and "criteria" (and many others) each had a particular meaning to the Mentor developers.

> 5. Intimacy: ". . . the greater degree of intimacy the observer achieves with his subjects, the more accurate his interpretations."

Webster's defines intimacy as "closely acquainted or associated; very familiar."

Whyte has said that participant observation is the means by which the most intimate view of an organization can be attained (1969, p. 41).

Due to personality and circumstantial factors, the observer achieved greater intimacy with some members of the committee than with others.

However, there were several factors which lead to a feeling of intimacy on the part of the team as a whole. One was simply the amount of time spent together. Another was the feeling of being "put upon" by others. This attitude of "developers against the world" strengthened group cohesiveness.

> 6. Consensus: ". . . the more the observer confirms the expressive meanings of the community, either directly or indirectly, the more accurate will be his interpretations of them" (1966, pp. 181-184)

Again, time was on the observer's side. First impressions were confirmed or discredited as time went by and new experiences increased the observer's store of knowledge. Members of the development committee shared impressions on a day-to-day basis, so that one could always check one's own impressions against those of another.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter consists of four sections. The first will deal with a description of the Mentor Project, its background, and the phases through which it went from conception to implementation.

The second section involves a two-step analysis of Mentor's Platform in terms of "what is" and "what ought to be."

The third section is devoted to analysis of the dynamics of decision-making in the Mentor Project.

The fourth section, like the second, involves two substeps. The first substep involves analysis of the Design of the program according to the implicit and explicit decisions inherent within it. The second is an analysis of the Design according to the same categories applied previously to the Platform.

Excerpts from taped transcripts of meetings are used extensively throughout this chapter. Several measures were taken to promote anonymity. Pseudonyms have been substituted for the developers' names. When other individuals are mentioned by name in the transcripts, pseudonyms are used in these cases as well. Names of schools and other places have also been changed.

Occasionally, grade levels were changed as a means of disguising particular materials. For instance, a reference to a Grade Six Alberta Education Teaching Unit might be altered to refer to a Grade Four unit.

In many cases, portions of transcripts have been deleted for purposes of brevity. A single line of spaced ellipsis points indicates a portion of transcript consisting of one or more sentences.

( ) is the symbol used to designate a word or words which were indiscernible from the tape.

The Mentor Project

Description of Mentor

The Mentor developers sent the project to ACCESS in March of 1981 to be produced. At this time the program consisted of a Self-Awareness Inventory and fifteen self-contained modules, each accompanied by a Leader's Guide.

The first module, called Overview, was intended as a brief introductory segment to create an awareness of what was available in the entire program, with the purpose of enabling teachers to make informed choices as to the modules most appropriate to their needs. The Self-Awareness Inventory was designed to help teachers to analyze their own teaching styles.

Each of the remainder of the modules was tied directly to the social inquiry model or to the three types of objectives found in the 1981 Social Studies Curriculum Guide. The modules and the corresponding objectives or segments of the social inquiry model are as follows:

Mentor Module	Social Inquiry Model or Objectives
Openers	1. Identify and Focus on the Issue 2. Establish Research Questions and Procedures
Historical Documents	3. Gather and Organize Data
Surveys	
Interviews	
Maps	
Organizing and Analyzing Data	3. Gather and Organize Data 4. Analyze and Evaluate Data
Evaluation of Data	4. Analyze and Evaluate Data
Synthesizing Data	5. Synthesize Data
Resolving the Issue	6. Resolve the Issue
Applying the Decision	7. Apply the Decision
Values Objectives	All steps
Evaluation of Skills	Skill Objectives
Evaluation of Knowledge	Knowledge Objectives
Evaluation of Values	Value Objectives

*In some cases, two skills were grouped together in the inquiry model. In these cases, the skill pertinent to the Mentor module has been underlined.

Each of these modules was intended to take about two and a half to three hours to complete.

Using Evaluation of Data as an example, each module consisted of the following steps:

PART 1	INTRODUCTION
PART 2	EXPERIENCING EVALUATION OF DATA
PART 3	CHARACTERISTICS OF EVALUATING DATA
PART 4	CLASSROOM DEMONSTRATIONS
PART 5	SHARING IDEAS ABOUT THE EVALUATION OF DATA
PART 6	DEVELOPING ACTIVITIES TO EVALUATE DATA
PART 7	SHARING IDEAS
PART 8	EXAMPLES OF EVALUATING DATA FROM KANATA KITS AND TEACHING UNITS
PART 9	EXAMPLES OF EVALUATING DATA FROM OTHER SOURCES
PART 10	MODULE EVALUATION FORM

Background of Mentor

Mentor originated in a proposal prepared by Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies, on behalf of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee in the spring of 1978. The proposal was given preliminary approval by the Curriculum Branch of Alberta Education, after costing out by ACCESS-TV (F. Crowther, personal correspondence, 1981).

In December of 1979, ACCESS asked Drs. Brad Powell and Tom Foster of the Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, to submit a proposal for the development of the in-service project.

Drs. Powell and Foster, in turn, asked four graduate students in the area of social studies, to assist them in the project.

The grad students were of varying backgrounds:

One student was on temporary leave from a position, held for the previous sixteen years, as a professor in the Department of Elementary Education of a university in another province. She was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

A second student had resigned from a position as assistant principal in a rural Alberta community where the bulk of his teaching experience had been at the secondary level. He had worked on a number of curriculum development projects for Alberta Education. He was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

Another student was on leave from a large urban Alberta school jurisdiction, where she had been employed as an elementary teacher for twenty-three years. She was in the first year of a Doctoral program.

The fourth grad student had resigned from a school district in a neighbouring province, where she had been employed as an elementary teacher for six years. She was in the first year of a Master's program when Mentor began.

When asked on one occasion why they had chosen to become involved in the project, Dr. Powell replied:

> It's wrapped up in why we take on certain projects and don't take on others, and our first obligation, of course, is to our students, and for graduate students that ideally means being involved in a

> project like this, where we're taking a problem and it dovetails with the kind of research, the kind of things that they're studying and it makes sort of a practical application of some of the theoretical stances. It's a good, a good project for staff members and students to be involved in. And so that's a major concern and so we reject some projects and take on others. This seemed ideal. We have an obligation to the schools in Alberta and we try to fulfill that in a number of ways: teaching the Alberta program in undergraduate method courses, helping out at the Department of Education on committees, trying to be, quote "good citizens" of the academic community. And so it's that kind of a context. We look at students, we look at what's happened to their assistantships. We've been under the same kind of constraints as every other government department. They're getting minimal kinds of endorsement from the Department financially, so if there are projects we can get into where they can work and we can in some way repay them for it, those are the kinds of projects we look for. And I think that's true across the University, whether it's our Department or the Department of Geography. Wherever you go, that's the way they operate. So that's the context that we took the project on . . .
>
> . . . .
>
> For instance, we wanted not only financial help for them, but we wanted some academic pieces for them. And we hoped that, well, there's a paper for one of the courses. Two of them worked on a paper in terms of their curriculum evaluation course that drew on the literature. We have another one looking at the process of program development, how the initial ideas change as they work through various groups of people and, hopefully, being able to compare those initial ideas with the final product and what influenced it. (May 22, 1980)

Another dimension as to why people take on projects such as this was provided by a second developer:

> Ted - Working on these team projects, you get to know one another better, you get involved. I really enjoyed working on Downey. Hell, there were lots of ups and downs on that. But it was a good sort of an experience, to work with all

> these different people. Working on the Hobbema Curriculum Project, I think I got a lot out of it. It took a lot of time. I was hoping Mentor was going to be the same thing. But the problem, really the problem is that with Downey, it was a lot, you know, the time span was a lot shorter. (Feb. 11, 1981)

Phases

Introduction

Figure 1 provides a schematic view of the major phases of the project and the stakeholders involved. It can be seen that the first four phases were anything but clearcut. Rather, one phase gradually merged into the next, with a great deal of overlap.

Development of modules began in February of 1980, before negotiation over the Proposal was complete. The development phase was the most lengthy, with the first and last draft of one module (Evaluating Values) not being developed until March of 1981.

Pilotting and revision of some modules and development of others were being done simultaneously much of the time. Pilotting began in May of 1980 and carried on, intermittently, until February of 1981. Revisions began in May of 1980, when the second version of the Openers module was drafted. Although the modules were sent to ACCESS in March of 1981, revisions to the Appendices continued until June.

Production began in March of 1981 and was completed by August of the same year. There is a clear break between production and implementation. Implementation began in September of 1981, when the in-service modules

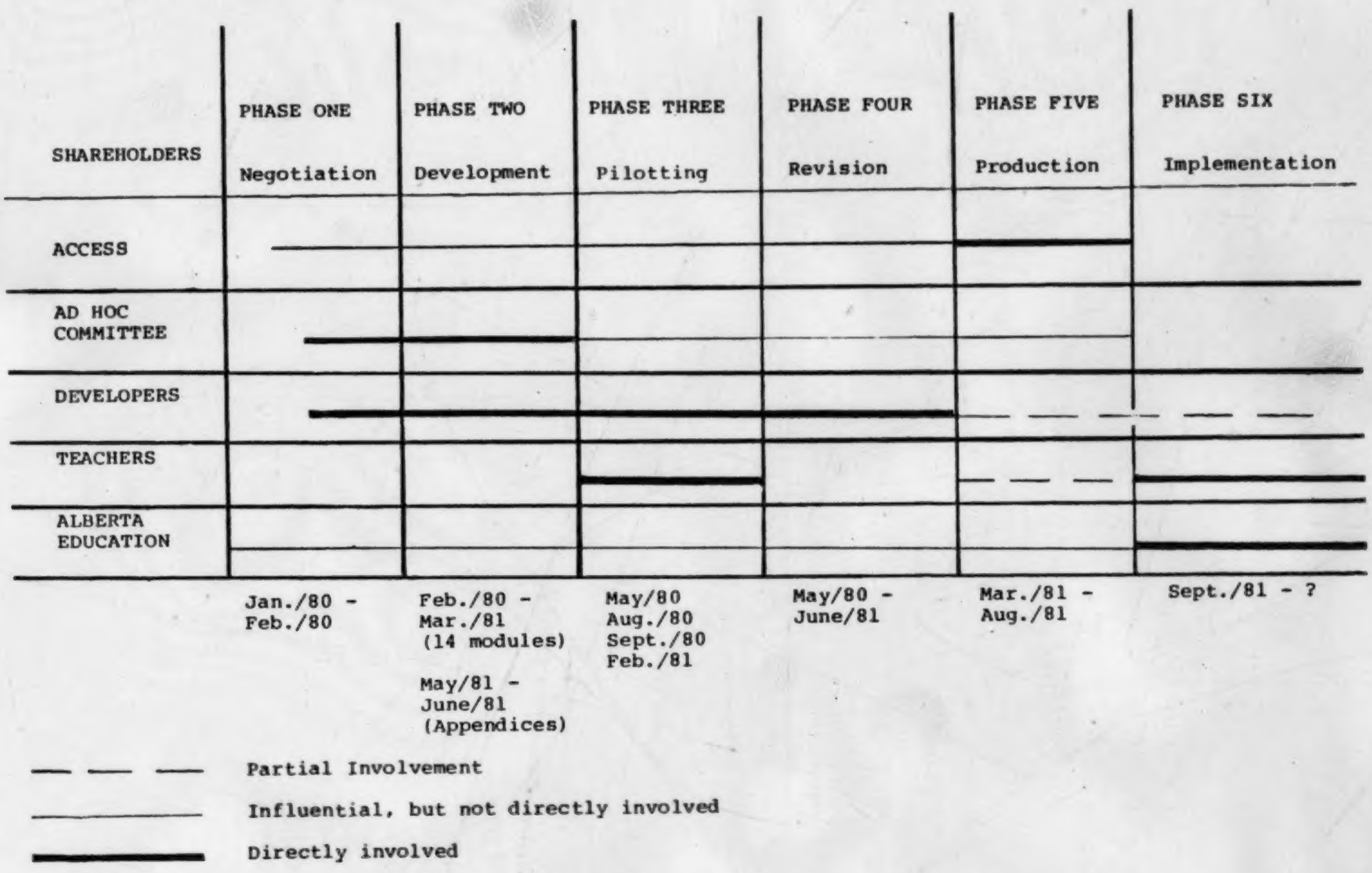

Figure 1
STAKEHOLDERS IN THE PROJECT

were first used as training materials for the 125 resource teachers. They were then to be used by these resource teachers during the 1981/82 school year. No final date was put under the Implementation phase because, presumably, the in-service program will continue to be used as long as the 1981 curriculum is in effect.

It can be seen in Figure 1 that while Alberta Education was the stakeholder with the most lengthy involvement in a periphery role, the developers were directly involved for the longest period.

Negotiation

The first meeting of the Mentor developers was held over lunch at the Power Plant, a graduate student restuarant and lounge on campus, on Friday, January 18, 1980. Drs. Powell and Foster outlined the intents of the project to the students at this time. It was suggested that the program might be oriented around different approaches to organizing a social studies classroom; i.e., learning centres, group investigation, contracts, and a teacher-presenter approach. It was agreed that everyone would try to come up with some ideas over the weekend and that the group would meet again on the following Monday.

Working together, the Mentor developers produced a proposal, which was submitted to members of the Social Studies In-Service Program Ad Hoc Committee early in February.

The ad hoc committee was appointed by Alberta Education to ensure "that a respectable set of procedures is followed in designing, developing, testing and revising the Mentor materials" (F. Crowther, 1981, personal correspondence).

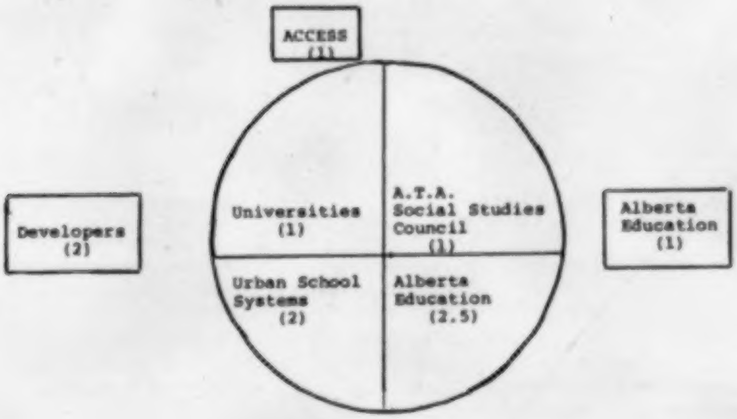
ACCESS (1)
Developers (2)
Universities (1)
A.T.A. Social Studies Council (1)
Urban School Systems (2)
Alberta Education (2.5)
Alberta Education (1)

Figure 2 Social Studies In-Service Program Ad Hoc Committee

This committee was comprised of a University of Calgary professor, a consultant from each of the Edmonton and Calgary public school systems, a member of the Alberta Teachers' Association Social Studies Council, and representatives from Alberta Education. The Alberta Education representatives included two regional consultants and the Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies. However, it was not quite this straightforward. One of the regional consultants attended only until January of 1981. From January to June of 1980, the Acting Associate Director attended the meetings in the place of the

Associate Director, who attended from September of 1980 until the completion of the project.

Others attended the ad hoc committee meetings as well. One of these was a Learning Resources Officer from Alberta Education whose role seemed to be to tape-record the meetings, to write up Minutes, and to act as a liaison between the developers, ACCESS, and Alberta Education. Also attending the meetings were the Project Coordinator from ACCESS and two of the developers.

The developers' Proposal was divided into two sections, the first dealing with the rationale for the in-service program, the second, outlining the actual program.

Negotiation was directed at the second part of the Proposal. It would seem that the ad hoc committee was either in agreement with the rationale or rhetoric of the developers, or did not consider it important enough to waste time in discussing it. While the second section of the Proposal went through two more drafts, the first section did not change.

In part two of the Proposal the developers described the format of the in-service program as they envisioned it. They visualized the program as being organized around four methods of having students interact with materials. These were contracts, learning centres, group investigation, and teacher-presenter.

Direction from the ad hoc committee was that these were not the most effective means of organizing the in-service program. Teacher as director, teacher as facilitator, and teacher as resource person was suggested as an alternate format.

An alternate approach was then designed by the developers around these three teaching modes. This approach consisted of teacher-director, implying that the teacher is responsible for most classroom decisions; teacher-student shared decision-making; and increased student decision-making.

This approach was approved and the developers then put together Draft Three of their Proposal, the official accepted version.

Development

Development began in February of 1980, while the development committee was still negotiating the third draft of the Proposal.

Input to the developers, through this phase and all of the following phases of their direct involvement, was generally as depicted in Figure 3.

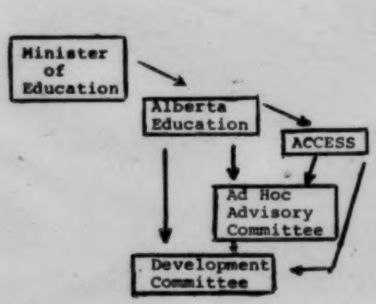

Figure 3 Input to the Development Committee

The Minister of Education, through, in particular, his announcement that the curriculum was to be implemented in September of 1981, and his decision to approve the hiring of 125 resource teachers during the 1981/82 school year, certainly had an effect on the project.

Alberta Education influenced the course of the project through its representation on the ad hoc committee. The Associate Director of Curriculum, Social Studies also communicated directly with the developers by means of letters, phone conversations, and face-to-face discussions.

The two professors acted as a liaison between the other developers and the ad hoc committee. They presented development committee products at the ad hoc committee meetings and then returned with feedback and directions for changes. Individual members of the ad hoc committee also communicated to the developers through phone conversations and letters.

The Project Coordinator from ACCESS attended ad hoc committee meetings, attended development committee meetings from time to time, and communicated directly with individual developers.

Meetings of the developers, through this and subsequent phases of their direct involvement, were characterized by a great deal of coming and going, as people took care of other commitments. When keeping up became impossible, a Sunday meeting would be scheduled.

When asked to give a brief description of how tasks were broken down, one of the developers gave the following account:

> Tom - From the beginning we functioned together as a group of six people who each contribute to the general planning of the whole and as we go along, we plan parts, operate as a whole group, and take pieces out to be completely developed by individuals; and so everybody has played a role in the overall planning and specific development as we've gone on. And we've tried out rough drafts back to the whole group and gone through them together, tried out the activities within our group, and made revisions. It's been I guess, a team who has worked together as a unit on the task, rather than there being superordinate and subordinate roles. The only difference, I guess, has been Brad and I represented the team to the advisory committee.
>
> Brad - And bear ultimate responsibility.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - The model has been one where you'll have students telling us what to do and which pieces we're to complete, probably more often than us telling them. I'll get that on the table.
>
> (May 22, 1980)

Members met as a group when individuals or subgroups had something to share. From the beginning, most of the meetings were devoted to establishing format, allocating tasks, and sharing what had been developed. The actual development occurred at other times.

Pilotting

The pilotting phase began in May of 1980, and continued, intermittently, until the spring of 1981.

Modules were pilotted in a variety of settings and circumstances, ranging from university undergraduate classes in social studies curriculum and instruction, to school staffs, to workshop groups from various schools, meeting in a central location. Pilotting was carried out not only by the developers, but by some members of the ad hoc committee, and by individuals who were not involved in Mentor in any other capacity.

From the beginning, there was a strong commitment on the part of the developers, to pilotting.

> Tom - Susan and I went over to a meeting with Alice Duncan, public school, and pilotted one of the modules with a group of teachers. As I understand it, there is nothing planned into either your time or your financial arrangement for that kind of pilotting to be done systematically with all of the modules because
>
> Bill - There was.
>
> Tom - out of that experience in doing that with a group of teachers came a very strong conviction that that has got to be planned for and has got to become somehow, if we're going to go ahead with this thing, has got to become a systematic (   )
>
> Bill - It was part of the original plan.
>
> Tom - You learn too much from it.
>
> . . . .
>
> Tom - That's why I brought it up because, I don't know what your view is on it, but I think not to go with a carefully developed plan for pilotting of every one of those modules
>
> Bill - Yes.
>
> Tom - is not good planning at all.
>
> . . . .

Tom - I encourage there being some small group of people to sit down and go through that plan and see if they can't be creative enough to find some ways that they can incorporate into it some opportunities for pilotting.

. . . .

Tom - You're also on a level of trying to make some good judgement about effectiveness and I guess I came away from that session with teachers yesterday feeling that the good basis for that committee to make decisions about go or no go is not on their sitting down and reading it.

Bill - Lord, no!

Tom - But rather them getting some feedback. What happens when you run some teachers through this thing?

(May 22, 1980)

A summary of the feedback from pilotting with thirty teachers, carried out in Calgary, Edmonton, and the Peace block in February of 1981, is as follows:

I. FEEDBACK ON MODULES

Among commonly cited suggestions from pilot teachers were the following:

A. Changes desired/improvements needed

- Time: more needed; too long, control pacing
- Directions not clear
- Group by grade level
- Use pre-attendance preparation
- Varied sequence of steps more effective
- Provide more concrete examples
- Present ideas to us, don't ask us to generate
- Example needed to start step 6
- Resent being treated like little kids
- Disjointed
- Need more content: what and how to do
- Purpose of inservice unclear
- Demonstrations don't illustrate both shared and directed
- Need demo at higher level

- Reading of handouts is not a sufficient demo; step 4 tough as a result
- Teachers need access to KK and TU
- Time of day (3:30) poor for serious involvement
- More discussion/explanation would generate interest
- Standard format repetitions (sic) (had done 3)

B. Strengths

- Discussion, sharing - Steps 5-6-7
- Module design
- Step 4 made me reflect on how I teach
- Appendix examples
- Criteria helpful (Step 2)
- Like specific ideas they can go back and use
- Like leader directed - more organized (Apply Decision)
- Example to start Step 6 helpful (Apply Decision)
- Ideas could be carried out in our classroom (Undated)

One major problem with every pilot was the lack of a complete set of materials. This lack was most apparent in Step Three, which was to involve two classroom demonstrations, one of a teacher using a teacher-directed approach with students and the other depicting teacher-student shared decision-making. Step Four involved the use of a continuum to analyze and compare the two demonstrations. It was very difficult for teachers to do this, not having seen the demonstrations. Usually, print materials intended to describe the demonstrations, were provided. This was a woefully inadequate substitute since, first, teachers were often somewhat resentful of being given additional materials to read, and secondly, they simply lacked the power and immediacy that a good visual representation would have.

As the developers expressed it,

> Brad - Well, I guess, you know, I still have the same concern. We designed those seven or eight steps, whatever we ended up with, with a variety of, uh, techniques in mind - that they would be involved, see some pieces, and we'd work on some pieces, and they'd share with others. And I don't think we've ever really tested that model out.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - The difficulty I have with the pilot - it's like, if you can imagine Toyota demonstrating their cars, or field-testing, without the motor. That might not be fair, but I think so. It seems to me that Step Three is such a crucial component.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

However, use of demonstrations was not an automatic panacea.

For the fourth of a series of six pilot sessions in one school, two of the developers had gone into a classroom and made a videotape. One developer taught a lesson involving resolution of an issue and the other filmed it.

While the technical quality of the videotape was somewhat lacking (the dialogue being punctuated with a sound akin to a nail scraping a blackboard, magnified ten times), it had been received enthusiastically by both the ad hoc committee and members of undergraduate curriculum and instruction classes to whom it had been shown.

Under other pilotting circumstances this module might have been received more favourably. However, three of the five participants at this particular session had decided among themselves, on the basis of the three pilots which they had already experienced (or endured), that they were going to work through the module at a furious pace, and be finished by 4:30. (Starting time was 3:30 and previous sessions had finished at 5:00). One of the participants shared this information following the session. It is interesting to note that her object was not to get away from school by 4:30, but simply to be finished the pilotting by then. She stayed, talking to the developers, until 5:30.

Susan - Did Ted tell you what happened when we showed the videotape?

Tom - They bitched about it, I guess.

Susan - Yeah.

Tom - Chewed it up and spat it out in one piece.

Susan - Yeah, you know I really thought that would make all the difference to Resolving the Issue, because we finally had one video component.

Tom - See, that's . . .

Susan - And they focussed on the teaching.

. . . .

Susan - But it really bombed, didn't it? In fact, they were so bored

Ted - You turned it off.

Susan - that I turned it off. I didn't take it, show it for the whole eight minutes or something. And I finally got to the point where I really had to get up and turn it off because I could just tell they were just biding time till it was over.

Ted - Well, we were holding up that group, you see.

> Susan - . . . we didn't know that at the time. That's what it was. They wanted to get on with it.
>
> Ted - ( )
>
> Susan - and we were holding them up for the ten minutes.
>
> Ted - We were holding them up.
>
> Betty - They had their agenda and you guys were interfering with it.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

Another complaint which teachers had regarding the modules concerned their dullness.

> Tom - And one of the things that somebody commented on was that they had attended a Science workshop where the guy had started it by coming in, taking his shoes off, and walking on glowing coals. Later on he had stuck his bare hand into some molten lead. "Now," she said, "in comparison, (Laughter) this was rather weak tea." Okay, well, I'm not suggesting that we build into the Step One, the workship leader goes in walking on glowing coals, but I am suggesting, the response of teachers to this was that they would like to see it presented in a little more pizazzy kind of a way.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

> Ted - And if I walked on coals I'd burn my feet and they'd say, "There you are. Bloody social studies educators, they burn their feet. Science guys can do it. They've got a better deal."
>
> Ted - I'll wear a suit tomorrow. Come with a bandage on. "I tried putting my hand on hot coals, but it didn't work." (Laughter)
>
> Betty -And come limping in. (Laughter)
>
> Ted - I'll get you to paint a black mark across my hand for the poker.
>
> Susan - Maybe this won't be so bad after all.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

A third problem was that some teachers viewed their input as ultimately futile.

> Susan - . . . they felt that the pilotting is futile because they say that, okay, "Alberta Education, ACCESS, and so on have invested a certain amount of money in this so far and so much time has been invested in it, we're not going to change the basic format. We might change a few cosmetic things." And she's probably right. The basic format is going to go ahead. So she said, "What's the point?"
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

Revision

"It is a bad plan that admits of no modification" (Publilius Syrus, First Century, B.C.).

> Ted - This, it seems to have become like Topsy. It keeps growing and growing and growing and it doesn't look like any end's in sight. I wouldn't mind if Topsy ended up looking like Brooke Shields, but she's beginning to look like a monster.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

Revisions were based on the results of pilotting and on directions from the ad hoc advisory committee. One module, Openers, went through ten drafts before being sent to ACCESS for production. (The revisions made to the Openers module are outlined in Figure 4.)

The following quotes are indicative of the discouragement experienced by the developers along the way to Draft Number Ten.

> Tom - It's gonna be like, uh, the SSC '78. This is Draft Four.
>
> Brad - I think you should get her to put the numbers from one to fifty on that.
>
> (Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - We've tried to clean that beast up so many times. I don't think it's ever going to come clean. Our bleach isn't strong enough, or something.

Betty - Tighten it up. Spruce it up.

Tom - Okay, that's Draft Four. It isn't that we haven't taken a run at the thing.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Brad - What draft is this by the way?

Ted - Five.

Betty - Five. "Openers Revisited."

Tom - It has a familiar ring about it, doesn't it? This reminds me of the '78 Curriculum.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

This excerpt is illustrative of the revision process. It is indicative of the tedious nature of the task. This session was repeated many times over as various drafts of each module were developed.

Betty - The first thing is, does everybody have a copy of the Draft Three of the Opener module?

Ted - I don't have one.

. . . .

Ted - That first one looks terrible.

Susan - The language is bad.

Ted - "The participants will take part in experiencing a sample of the strategy under study in the module."

Betty - That's what I wanted to ask. Are we happy with this procedure to be a standard one for all modules or should we revamp that first of all?

Tom - I think we should have the first one say, "Teachers will experience . . ."

. . . .

Betty - Okay. Number five - "Participants will be encouraged to share" - uh, "Teachers will share experiences."

Tom - "Share their Openers."

Susan - "With Openers."

Tom - How about - "Teachers will share their Openers"?

Brad - "Teachers will share their ideas about Openers."

Betty - What did you say?

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Betty - "Teachers will share . . ."

Susan - "Ideas about Openers."

Betty - "Ideas about Openers."

Ted - And then I think you can say, "Working in groups, where possible, teachers will develop an Opener for a unit of interest to them." It can almost stay the same, I think.

Betty - What did you change? The word, "working"? Or just . . . ?

Tom - "Participants."

Ted - "Participants" to "teachers."

Betty - Hm?

Susan - "Teachers."

Ted - "Teachers."

Betty - Oh, just that so it becomes, "Teacher"? Okay, just give me time to write that because I'll forget if I don't.

Ted - I hope that next time you'll take a course in speedwriting, uh, Betty.

Betty - I will. I'll try.

Ted - Otherwise, we're going to have to get rid of you.

Betty - I'll write on your eyeballs with my pencil if you don't shut up.

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Betty - "Teachers . . ."

Ted - "Teachers will share . . ."

Susan - "Their Openers"?

Ted - "Their Openers with others"?

Brad - "Teachers will share their ideas for Openers."

Susan - I find that confusing, though, because isn't it at that point they're supposed to share the Openers that they developed in Part Six? And I think it's easily confused with Number Five when they say their ideas for Openers. They're not sure if it's their Opener they developed or if we're just repeating Five.

Betty - Well, what did we mean by Seven?

Susan - We meant that they were going to share the Openers that they developed.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

While Openers was revised the greatest number of times, every module was revised more than once. This became a very tedious procedure. There seemed to be no definite end in sight. We often experienced a feeling of hopelessness, because it seemed that the more changes we took to the ad hoc advisory committee, the more additional changes they would suggest.

One of the developers, on a day of particular despair, likened us to Sisyphus, with his boulder, eternally toiling upward, only to begin again at the bottom.

Production

While the focus of this thesis is to describe the creation of the Mentor Project up until the time it went to ACCESS to be produced, it seems worthwhile to briefly describe the Production phase.

Figure 4 Revisions to Openers Module

Draft	Date	Format	Content
1	Mar./80 (Prototype)	- Two modules, one for Teacher presenter mode and one for Teacher/Student decision makers - Part 1 - VTR - a. Intro. - Description of Openers b. Exemplary episodes Part 2 - Discussion of episodes Part 3 - Developing an Opener Part 4 - Sharing Session	- Sketchy content - Concept of Openers involves first step of Social Inquiry Model - Identify and Focus on the Issue
2	May/80	- Change from two modules to one with both approaches incorporated - Parts 1 & 2 a. to experience an Opener b. to identify the drawbacks of that Opener c. to identify the strengths of that Opener d. to identify characteristics of an effective Opener Parts 3 & 4 e. to identify the teacher's role in two Openers Part 5 f. to generate a pool of Openers by sharing ideas Part 6 g. to develop an Opener for a unit Part 7 h. to expand the pool of Openers	- Much greater detail
3	July/80	- Same format	- Concept of Openers expanded to include second step of Social Inquiry Model - Establish Research Questions and Procedures

4	Aug./80	- This module developed specifically for one pilot session, then abandoned. Format the same except for removal of Opener in a., with the two Openers in e. taking its place	- Participants no longer asked to generate their own criteria for evaluating an Opener
5	Aug., Sept./ 80	- Very brief section - Directions to Leader - added - (1) Teachers will experience an Opener (2) Teachers will consider the characteristics of an Opener (3) Openers in two classrooms will be shown (4) The two demonstrations will be analyzed (5) Teachers will share ideas about Openers (6) Working in groups of two or three, teachers will develop an Opener for a unit of interest to them (7) Openers developed will be shared with other teachers	- Sample Opener in Part 1 changed - Some questions changed - Suggested times for each section added
6	Sept./80	- Inquiry Model in different location	- Statement of necessary equipment - A few wording changes
7	Nov./80		- Wording changes
8	Dec./80		- A characteristic added to list of characteristics of Openers - Sentence added in Appendix A
9	Dec./80		- Note that a second Appendix will be included - One characteric eliminated - A statement altered in Appendix A

10	Mar./81	- No longer self-contained Participant's Manual but ten handouts for participants accompanied by a Leader's Manual with an explanation for each handout - A second Appendix added, this one containing examples from sources other than the Teaching Units and Kanata Kits - PART 1 A PROCESS OF SOCIAL INQUIRY - PART 2 EXPERIENCING AN OPENER - PART 3 CHARACTERISTICS OF OPENERS - PART 4 ANALYZING THE DEMONSTRATIONS - PART 5 SHARING IDEAS ABOUT OPENERS - PART 6 DEVELOPING AN OPENER - PART 7 SHARING IDEAS - PART 8 EXAMPLES OF OPENERS FROM KANATA KITS AND TEACHING UNITS - PART 9 EXAMPLES OF OPENERS FROM OTHER SOURCES - PART 10 MODULE EVALUATION FORM	- Sample Opener in Part 1 changed

According to the contract between ACCESS and the developers, the developers' role with regard to production was to consist of the following:

> Consult with ACCESS production staff during the production phase of the project as required by the Project Coordinator. Such consultation to include but not limited to:
>
> a) script writer (s)
> b) designer (s)/editor (s)
> c) producer (s)
>
> (June 24, 1980)

In actuality, the developers' role was confined to the first task. Most of the classroom demonstrations that were videotaped were based on lesson plans written by the developers.

The Mentor Project, at the end of the Production phase, appeared in a large brown binder with several videotapes. The binder consists of the written portion of an Overview module, a Self-Awareness package, and thirteen self-contained modules (Surveys and Interviews having been combined into one). Overview, Openers, Historical Data Sources, Evaluation of Data, Synthesizing Data, Resolving the Issue, and Values and Valuing have a videotape portion. The other modules are based on print materials only. The videotapes accompanying these modules consist of elementary and secondary demonstrations of a teacher and students applying the inquiry skill(s) pertinent to the module; i.e., in Openers they would be identifying and focussing on the issue and establishing research questions.

The format of the modules remained as described on page 4 of this chapter, except for two changes. Part 7, which had involved sharing of the ideas or activities developed in Part 6, was removed, as was Part 9, which was a collection of examples of the inquiry skills used in sources other than the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units.

Implementation

Originally, implementation plans for Mentor had much the same scope as the implementation of the Phase I in-service program. Copies of that program had simply been made available to Alberta Education Regional Consultants, school district consultants, and supervisors to be used as they found suitable opportunities.

However, the Minister of Education's announcement in the Legislature in May of 1981, that 2.2 million dollars would be put into in-service during the 1981/82 school year, changed all of that. This funding came, not from Alberta Education, but from general provincial funds, as a result of a cabinet order (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981). It was intended to be used to provide in-service for every social studies teacher in the province.

The decision was made by Alberta Education that the Mentor program, which was already in development, was to be used, first as training material for the 125 teachers from around the province who had been hired to lead the in-service sessions, and secondly, as the in-service program itself.

This event is momentous. Mentor and the social studies curriculum [9] are going to be in the spotlight of publicity for the 1981/82 school year. Because such a huge financial commitment had been made to the program, and because in-service on this scale has, apparently, not been tried anywhere before (Alberta Report, May 15, 1981), it is evident that it will receive a great deal of attention.

> Following his announcement of the in-service programme, Education Minister David King observed that the ATA had been "arguing long and hard" that such training would make a big difference in the quality of teaching. "So we're going to see," he concluded.

The developers, in their role as developers of the Mentor program, will take little active part in the Implementation Phase. However, at least two of the developers will be actively involved in other ways.

One is a member of the steering committee, composed of representatives from Alberta Education, the Alberta School Trustees' Association, the Alberta Teachers' Association, and the universities. This committee was put together for the purpose of watching over the Implementation Phase. Being a professor in elementary education and a school trustee, it is as likely that he was chosen for one or both of these two roles as it is that he was chosen as a Mentor developer.

Another developer, as a half-time social studies consultant with a large urban public school system, is to be involved in using the Mentor materials as an in-service leader.

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[9] See Alberta Report - March 6, 1981, June 26, 1981 July 31, 1981

Conclusion

It can be seen that the Mentor Project went through quite a metamorphosis over the course of its creation.

While it was at first oriented around four means of organizing a social studies classroom, it became tied more and more closely to the 1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, with its modules, in the end, tied specifically to the steps of the inquiry model and the three types of objectives in the curriculum. It was perhaps thought that tieing the in-service program directly to the curriculum would increase teachers' awareness of the curriculum itself.

One force at work to achieve this end was historical. The failure of the 1971 curriculum to be implemented in many Alberta classrooms was still very much in people's minds. The ad hoc committee and several of the developers had been around to see that failure. One can assume that they didn't want to see history repeated.

It could be said too that many of the individuals on the ad hoc committee had, to some degree, a stake in the implementation of the curriculum because of involvement in writing it or of materials to accompany it.

It is interesting to note that there was only one practising teacher between the developers and the ad hoc committee. This is in conflict with the guidelines set out by current research on in-service, which strongly points to teachers being involved in planning in-service experiences intended for them.

However, teachers did have a say in the program through their role in the pilotting of the modules. Feedback from pilot sessions was taken very seriously and much revision work was done as a result of what teachers had to say.

The feedback summary makes evident the difficulty of pilotting without the visual demonstrations of classrooms in action. This point will be brought out in more depth in the analysis of decision-making in the following sections of this chapter.

While the revisions did seem to be a burden to the developers, this is apparently common to such projects. On the Keele Project, Shipman remarked that, "For every page that was finally published there were probably a dozen that finally ended in the waste paper basket" (1974, p. 58).

Part of the reason the revisions seemed so endless was perhaps because the expectations set up by ACCESS as to deadlines were unrealistic. (The Keele Project took six months simply deciding what it was going to do and how it was going to do it.)

This is a listing of timelines in a contract signed by ACCESS on June 13, 1980 and by the developers on June 24, 1980. (These timelines were a more realistic revision of the ones originally established in January of 1980!)

1. Complete development of print	June 29, 1980
2. Complete drafting of print materials	July 15, 1980
3. Complete development for media	July 30, 1980
4. Validate module development	August 15, 1980
5. Complete revisions to module development	September 1, 1980
6. Consultation as assigned	
a) in three	December 1, 1980
b) installments	April 1, 1981
c) as noted.	September 1, 1981

These dates did not seem to account for extensive pilotting and the possibility of having to do considerable revisions as a result.

As it turned out, the print materials were not completed and sent to ACCESS until the end of March of 1981. Even then, Parts 8 & 9 were incomplete, and were not sent until June.

It was essential that revisions be carried out; yet the developers operated under a burden of guilt because of their inability to meet the timelines set up.

Another point made evident here is the number of stakeholders in the development of an educational program. If one is going to become involved in such an endeavour, then one has to accept the presence of a number of eyes peering over one's shoulder. This kind of work is not for the rugged individualist.

The next section of this chapter will begin the detailed analysis of the development process with a two-step analysis of Mentor's platform.

Analysis of Platform

What Is

According to Walker, "the Platform includes an idea of what is and a vision of what ought to be" (1971, p. 52). Implicit in the "idea of what is" in this case, is a view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies.

View of Teacher

A particular view of the teacher is evident in the Proposal document.

First, teachers are viewed as unique individuals with "varying conceptions of social studies, ideas about how children learn, beliefs about best ways of teaching and knowledge of a variety of activities to try" (p. 9). As individuals, they "vary as learners, starting at different points, learning at different rates, benefitting differently from various learning materials and activities and seeking different learning goals" (p. 10). As well, they come with individual needs to be met by the in-service program and strengths which will enable them to contribute to it.

Teachers are viewed as motivated people who wish to be as autonomous as possible. They are "mature professionals capable of making some decisions about in-service themselves" (p. 9). Consequently, they need to be "active determiners of the in-service experiences in which they are involved" (p. 12).

Teachers are viewed as people who have many demands on their time and who have a "practical bent" (p. 11).

They wish to take away concrete materials from in-service sessions, which can be used immediately in their classrooms. They like to be shown new ideas in action, rather than simply be told about them.

Teachers place more credibility in the ideas of other practising teachers than they do in the ideas of others. They also value opportunities to interact socially with other teachers.

View of Children

The focus is on teachers, rather than children. Therefore, the implicit assumption here seems to be that since the purpose of the in-service program is to help teachers to improve their teaching, this will in turn help children to improve their learning.

The emphasis is on particular children rather than some general conception of children. Teachers will view, through slide or videotape presentations, case-studies of particular children experiencing various approaches to learning in social studies. Actual samples of student work would be available. Teachers are going to work toward the development of a unit for their class, taking the needs, abilities and interests of that specific group of children into account.

View of Evaluation

The evaluation section of the Proposal is brief and rather vague. Evaluation seems to be envisioned as serving two purposes. The first purpose is concerned with collection of descriptive data regarding the in-service experience itself. These data would come from the participants.

View of In-Service

The Proposal displays a perspective on in-service that is broader than the one-shot session approach. As well as the in-service sessions themselves, in-service includes "time for in-classroom experimenting with new roles and time for reflection on this classroom experience" (p. 10).

The mode of presentation is termed "mutualistic" (p. 10), meaning in this context, that teachers are to participate in the shaping of their in-service experience. It was not to be determined for them beforehand.

Emphasis is placed on social interaction as a means of exchanging ideas and as a way of building up the accepting environment and mutual support that is necessary to experimenting with new roles.

View of Resources

A concern for commitment at both the level of Alberta Education and that of local school boards is evident. Alberta Education is urged to hire additional regional consultants, while local boards are commiserated with because Alberta Education has given them the responsibility for in-service, while at the same time providing few resources to assist them in carrying out this responsibility.

The Proposal shows an awareness of the fact that it takes a great deal of time for teachers to acquire new teaching strategies, but that little time is actually allocated by school boards for this purpose.

View of Social Studies

The view inherent in the statements made concerning social studies seems to be that to teach the subject well is a complex undertaking requiring teaching strategies which are unfamiliar to a great many teachers, who have had no particular assistance, either in their pre-service teacher education or during their in-service teaching of the subject.

In addition to the view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies implicit within the Proposal, a number of explicit statements are made concerning the intended shape of the in-service program and the various factors which were taken into account in determining that shape are listed.

Six factors taken into account by the developers in determining the shape of the in-service program are as follows:

> 1. Directions from the advisory committee indicating that their priority for the program is that it provide assistance to Division II teachers, Division III teachers, Division I teachers, and lastly, Division IV teachers.
>
> 2. The results of the survey of forty teachers, consultants, supervisors and administrators conducted by the advisory committee.
>
> 3. The results of a similar but more extensive survey of teachers elsewhere. (pp. 1-2)

The results of the two surveys were very diverse. They are summarized in the Proposal as follows:

> The surveys would seem to suggest that in-service efforts be directed in the following areas:
>
> - Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches
> - Using a variety of approaches and strategies to increase student interest and motivation. (p. 9)
>
> 4. The implications of recent research on in-service efforts and the results of the above two surveys for the MENTOR series. (p. 2)

The recent research on in-service education has been extensively reviewed in an earlier part of this thesis. From this review a number of tenets were drawn, which briefly summarize the state-of-the-art of research in this area.

Together, these tenets provide a picture of the elements of an effective in-service program. They are as follows:

- The expressed needs of teachers determine the content and shape of the in-service program.
- Teachers are directly involved in planning the program (goals, content, instructional approach, evaluation, etc.).
- Opportunities are provided for teachers to learn from one another.
- The program takes place in the school setting.
- Attendance is voluntary.
- Opportunities for social interaction are provided.
- Provision is made for presentation of theory or description of the skill or strategy, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching for application if the goal is for participants to master new teaching strategies or to implement a new curriculum.

The remaining two factors taken into consideration by the developers were:

5. The financial resources that are available to develop materials.
6. The time constraints under which program development must take place. (p. 2)

The message in the Proposal is that provision for each of these two factors is limited.

What Ought To Be

One can construct a fairly detailed picture of the in-service program which could be expected based on this Proposal. Specifically, this picture is based on:

1. The view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies evident in the Proposal.

2. Explicit statements concerning the intended shape of the program.

3. Factors including survey results, the recent research on in-service, and certain practical constraints, which were taken into account by the developers in determining the shape of the program.

The description of the in-service program is divided into a number of categories. These are: Purpose, Format, Setting, Content, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

Purpose

To explore "alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (p. 1).

Format

Ideally, the program will be ongoing, involving a number of sessions, with opportunities between for both practice of new teaching strategies, and to act in the role of coach as other participants practice.

However, mention is made in the Proposal that, due to financial and time constraints, the above is not always possible. Therefore, the program will be flexible, in order to meet the requirements of those participants who are able to engage in the longterm program described above and those who are not.

The program will begin with a self-awareness activity "which helps teachers become aware of their varying views about the nature of children and learning, their diverse goals for Social Studies and their differing beliefs about how best to teach" (p. 12).

> PART ONE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS-WHO ARE WE?
>
> The purpose of these experiences would be to have teachers engage in self-analysis in order to determine their view of children, Social Studies, and preferred organisational styles. This information would then be used to help make decisions as to the kinds of inservice experiences they want to pursue in PART TWO. (p. 13)

As a result of this activity participants will form groups of like-minded individuals. These groups will then be presented with a preview of available in-service materials, from which they will choose those elements which seem to be most suitable to their needs.

> PART TWO ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION
>
> The purpose of these experiences would be to help teachers develop a specific unit of their choosing based on one of four classroom organizational patterns. Patterns to be explored are:
> 1. The teacher presenter
> 2. Learning contracts
> 3. Learning centers
> 4. Group investigations
>
> Within each of these major patterns specific teaching/learning strategies would be developed. (p. 14)

Content

The content of the in-service program is to be concerned with two areas:

- Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches
- Using a variety of approaches and strategies to increase student interest and motivation (p. 9)

Each of the four patterns will include case studies of classes or individual students using that approach, as well as pertinent articles, samples of student work, and so on.

For instance the teacher presenter pattern will contain the following:

Participant Guide

Sample Displays

Sample film reaction sheets, retrieval charts, seating arrangements.

Case studies of:
- a) Teacher presentation via books, film
- b) Directing data organization via retrieval charts and question sequences
- c) Directing use of knowledge via predicting consequences

d) Directing use of guest speakers and tapes of their presentations

Articles on oral presentations

Articles on rotating data intake and data use

Articles on question sequences to guide discussion, to generalize, conceptualize, and predict.

Articles on assigning research topics and reports.

Sample student work (p. 15)

Setting

The in-service program will take place in the school setting whenever possible. Those attending would be the staff of that particular school.

When this is not possible, "intact groups" will be achieved through the grouping that will take place as a result of the self-awareness activity. Cohesiveness will be increased through the identification of group goals for the in-service program and through the use of "pens, paper, folders, notebooks, etc., bearing a logo symbolic of their group goals" (p. 12). Cohesiveness will be further increased as group members work through the various activities and as they interact socially.

Role of Participants

1. Prior to the In-Service Program

A survey was carried out with forty Alberta educators to determine their in-service needs. Also a more extensive survey done in the United States was consulted. This survey broadened the survey base and repeated many of the concerns expressed in the Alberta survey.

Prior to the program, then, potential participants had a role in determining the shape of the in-service.

2. During the In-Service Program

Participants will be actively involved in a myriad of activities. They will be engaging in self-analysis, planning their in-service experiences, contributing to group decision-making, viewing classroom case studies, examining samples of student work, sharing their own experiences with other participants, applying what is learned to developing a unit for their own class, and contributing to program evaluation.

3. Following the In-Service Program

Participants will implement in their classrooms the units which they developed, and apply the various approaches and strategies to which they have been exposed, to other social studies units as well. They will teach social studies in an inquiry oriented fashion.

Evaluation

Evaluation will be ongoing, rather than tacked on at the end, as is so often the case.

Teachers will be extensively involved in this aspect of the program. Their task will involve providing descriptive data regarding their experiences in the in-service sessions and allowing observers into their classrooms and possibly going themselves to observe in the classrooms of other participants.

Evaluation will be concerned with finding answers to such questions as: What are the participants' perceptions of their in-service experiences? How congruent are the perceptions of the participants with those of the developers? Are the learning opportunities intended by the developers actually provided? Are they meeting participants' perceived needs? Does the in-service program have any impact on the classroom behaviour of participants?

Deliberation

The second phase of the development process has been called deliberation. It is the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions.

The four deliberative episodes identified by Walker were found in the Mentor Project transcripts. These were explication, brainstorm, report and issue.

In addition to these four deliberative episodes, four other episodes were found in the Mentor discourse. These have been called organization, presentation, update, and invention.

These episodes are not deliberative, in the sense that they are not part of the process of considering alternatives and coming to decisions. However, they are essential to the carrying on of deliberation and are an integral part of the development process. Therefore, it was considered necessary to include them in this analysis.

A third aspect was found to the discourse in the Mentor Project. These data were categorized according to Berger's (1969) concept of "plausibility structures." The three plausibility structures used were legitimations, appeals to significant others, and nihilism. Again, the discourse in these categories was not directly related to decision-making, but was a definite part of the process of development, and could not be ignored.

Explication

An *explication* is defined by Walker as a time when "one person talks at length about ideas, terms, or propositions whose meaning or significance seems unclear or is misunderstood in the group" (1971, p. 120). An explication involves an "orderly, systematic development of ideas in the manner of a lecture" (Walker, 1971, p. 120).

In this example of an explication, one developer is providing both a summary and an interpretation of pilot feedback for the other developers.

> Tom - They're worth scanning through. The conclusion that I came away with after I scanned through a bunch of those was, regardless of what else happened, they did seem to get something out of it. That their answers as they filled out the spaces on here, the Module Form, indicated some pretty good development of ideas. The conclusion I reach is that most of the people who have gone through the thing have answered question three. Those people are saying that, yes, the design is effective, the model that we're operating from, worked. And when you look at their responses that they fill in, as they go through and do that activity, that series of activities, that supports their conclusion that this does work. They do learn from it. They come out with some good ideas. The other thing that also seems clear to me is that when they respond to item one, whether it's in writing on this form, or from some of the nonverbal feedback that Susan was picking up from her class, or some of the grousing that seemed to come back from John Black's class, there is a concern that the amount of time that it takes to invest in the thing in order to get the learning back out, is too much. You pay too high a price for what you get out of it. It's not good value. And the third thing that strikes me is, when Susan

> played the workshop leader role that we had intended, which was hand things out, get them started, and then step back and let them go, that took twice as long as when Patrick Clark did it with his students. And I'm sure that he played a much more interventionist role. So out of that I conclude, maybe we ought to stick with our model, but we ought to look at ways that we can put with it a leader's role that uh, hustles the thing along a bit more.
>
> (Aug. 26, 1980)

Brainstorm

During a brainstorm episode, "everyone tries to suggest something that might solve some single problem or fulfill some particular function (Walker, 1971, p. 119).

This brainstorm session took place at the instigation of the Project Manager from ACCESS, who had requested that the developers meet with him to generate ideas as to ways to vary the presentation of the first two steps in each module.

> Tom - Some ideas about things that we can vary and look for . . .
>
> Bill - Check. One thing that Ted was talking about a moment ago, was the Step Twos. Uh, in all of the modules now, Step Two is identical, uh, where it's a checkoff. Now, we can vary that format and still keep it um, uh, a pencil-and-paper activity, if you, if you so desire.
>
> Susan - What would be the alternative to a pencil-and-paper activity?
>
> Bill - No, I mean it could still be pencil-and-paper activities, but you can vary the check uh, uh. You could do two different styles. You can do a checkoff in one. You can do a rank ordering in another. You can

do a, um, almost a cut-and-paste, you know, cut your module apart and put them in piles, you know. You could even . . . . Yeah, I think we could call for them to be perforated, so they're pull-apartable. Uh, other ways . . .

. . . .

Susan - What are you talking about when you say, "What are some other ways besides pencil-and-paper?" That's what I'm wondering - what are the alternatives?

. . . .

Susan - Like an overhead - is that what you're thinking of, or . . . ?

Bill - That would be a possibility. Maybe, uh, maybe have them on a set of slides.

Susan - Oh, like have each criterion on a slide.

. . . .

Bill - You could do a black, a chalk-talk type of approach too, where the criteria would be suggested to the leader, and the leader could, uh, you know, write them down, elicit them from the audience.

. . . .

Bill - How about some nonexamples?

Tom - According to Linda Adams, we've got those.

(Laughter)

. . . .

Betty - We've got poems in some.

. . . .

Susan - We've got that card game in Historical Documents.

. . . .

Susan - Oh, the Junior Atlas was used in Step One. Interviewing - conduct an interview.

. . . .

Ted - You might get people to role-play the possibilities.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Report

A report is an episode "in deliberation during which one person briefs the group on events or situations about which he has privileged information" (1971, p. 119). The report may be interrupted, and its course changed, by questions and comments of listeners. However, the individual who delivers the report is the chief source of information.

Reports given by members of the Mentor group were usually concerned with one of two topics--sharing experiences an individual or pair of developers had had with pilotting a module, or summarizing a telephone conversation or meeting in which part of the development committee had met with individuals from ACCESS or Alberta Education.

Two examples of reports are included here. The first is concerned with relating part of the message given by teachers during a pilot session in which two of the developers had acted as leaders.

> Brad - Well, we keep going round the same thing time and time again. We've never had a module to pilot. We don't know what they're like. All the fancy pilotting and piece-meal that's gone on.
>
> Tom - That's not quite true, I don't think. I asked Ted the other day what they learned from doing that Valuing one that would suggest ways that it could be made more successful with teachers.
>
> Ted - They said two things. They said that Step One - they didn't think that Activity Three

> was a very good one. The other two activities they thought were fine. And then they said, in Step Six - it should be almost like Applying the Decision. In the Valuing one - I don't think this applies to Organizing or Gathering, those types of modules - but there they thought we needed an example, sort of an example given to them showing how it works. Show them, in effect, before they actually got to develop their own. It seems to me to be a reasonable type of thing for them to say, bearing in mind that we don't have Step Three. All you can do is explain what's going to be in Step Three. And they haven't got that to look at. They don't actually view it. Now if they had that Step Three, whether that would have answered their needs . . .
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

The second example is a report of a telephone conversation between a developer and the chairman of the ad hoc committee. Only part of the report has been reproduced here.

> Tom - Anyway, the second thing that Sheridan got on about then was this - Tornowsky wants to use the Mentor program as a test of the principles of the Tri - what was that?
>
> Susan - partite.
>
> Tom - Tripartite Committee had set down about what in-service should be like. He wants to get this thing out into the schools and do some testing to find out whether it makes any difference. So these are the principles that should be embedded in the plan for in-service programs. Apparently Sheridan feels that the Mentor program is a fair embodiment of those principles and therefore, the thing to do to find out if the principles are any good is to take this out into the schools and use it to determine whether it seems to have any impact on what teachers do after they actively participate in it. So he's rather anxious to get Smith going to get the stuff produced to get the program into the schools. The Tripartite Committee will make use of it in determining whether or not the principles ( ).

Brad - What's the Tripartite Committee?

Tom - Tornowsky has got together people from Alberta Education, A.T.A., and,

Mary - It must be the school trustees.

Tom - and they have formed a committee. We already had that little publication on in-service in Alberta ( ) had a proposal in it, and used social studies as an example.

Brad - I hadn't seen that proposal.

Tom - Yes, you have. I showed it to you. I've got a copy of it in my office.

. . . .

Mary - I wonder how close Mentor really is to Tornowsky's . . . ?

Tom - I believe he said there were ten pages of statements of principles.

Mary - Where?

Tom - Tornowsky had his Tripartite Committee generate ten pages . . . .

Mary - I thought maybe Mentor . . .

Tom - So Sheridan sits down and reads Tornowsky's report that he had. Now it's just like the Mentor program. I said, "You've got to be kidding." But he said, "It was a good embodiment of much of the stuff that Fullan and Pomfret have written." I said, "We can't be talking about the Mentor program because it doesn't fit." "Oh, yes, it does." Anyway, he feels it does. Tornowsky, apparently, has been convinced by Sheridan that the Mentor program is an embodiment of sound principles of in-service.

Susan - Has Tornowsky looked at the actual Mentor series?

Tom - That I don't know.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Issue

Walker defines an issue as a "task-relevant argument. In an issue, some people advocate something and others oppose it or advocate an alternative" (1971, p. 119).

The use of issue in this analysis is slightly different. It is based on Webster's definition, which is as follows: "a point, matter, or question to be disputed or decided", with the emphasis on "decided" rather than "disputed." Walker's use of issue emphasizes the idea of a situation where "something is 'at issue'; opposing points of view are propounded and defended, and discussion is intense and animated" (Walker, 1971, p. 119). Here, the emphasis is on the idea of a problem which has not yet been resolved. The transcript excerpts will portray the process of bringing the problem to a resolution.

Some issues seemed to come up quickly and to be resolved as quickly as they had occurred. However, there were a number of major issues which seemed to reappear time after time.

One was the issue of whether or not the modules required a leader. Originally, the intent was that the in-service modules be adaptable enough to be used by a leader, or, in cases where no leader was available, to stand on their own.

The leader, if present, would adopt a relatively unobtrusive role. Participants would be directed through the Self-Awareness Inventory and the Overview, on the bases of which they would choose the module with which they would become involved. They would then, individually or in small groups, work with their chosen module, with the leader acting as a facilitator.

In cases where there was no leader, the modules were to be self-directive enough that an individual or group of participants could use them on their own.

Later, a third perception of the way in which the modules were to be used, became apparent. This perception involved a leader who would take a directive, rather than a facilitative, role. This leader would conduct a group of participants through a particular module.

The developers experienced a great deal of difficulty in reconciling these three perceptions. As a result, although this decision had apparently been made as early as February of 1980, questions concerning it continued to arise again and again. In fact, this issue was not truly resolved until the meeting of February 15, 1981.

The first two perceptions are evident in this excerpt from the April 11, 1980 meeting.

> Tom - What else were things that you were talking about last time?
>
> Ted - Well, the whole idea of whether it should be self-instructing or not . . . .

Mary - In effect, do we need a Leader's Manual?

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - I thought we had sort of decided on that.

Mary - Yeah, we did.

Ted - What did we decide?

Mary - That we did.

Ted - That they, teachers, have to be directed?

Mary - Yes.

Tom - That there must be a Leader's Manual?

Mary - I think we made that decision, didn't we?

Susan - Well, didn't we decide that it was going to be the same as the Participant's, but it would have some extra little parts. I think we did decide that.

Mary - So we perceive that the in-service would usually be held under the auspices of a leader, who would need to know what was going on, and so there would be a guide for that leader.

Tom - Well, we decided that the Participant's Guide should be self-explanatory.

Mary - Yes, ( ).

Tom - It should be possible for somebody to pick it up without a leader and go right through it.

Susan - We decided both, I think, that you could have the Participant's Manual and go through it on your own, but also that a Leader's Manual would be provided so if there was a leader, there would be extra suggestions.

Tom - Those two seem a little bit contradictory, to me somehow.

Susan - Yes, a lot of our decisions are.

> Mary - Well, I think we're trying to respond to two perceptions of how this goes. Some people are perceiving it as something that needs a leader and others perceive it as something that is self-instructing, and so we have our usual split personality.
>
> (April 11, 1980).

The next excerpts make it evident that, four months later, (August 11 and August 12, 1980), the developers were still attempting to reconcile the two perceptions of the way in which the program was to operate.

Adding to the confusion, was a major point which was becoming evident as a result of pilotting. This was that leaderless modules were extremely costly in terms of time. By the time participants deciphered what it was the directions wished them to do, got off topic and back on again, and so on, hours could go by.

> Susan - The other thing that came out, I think, was the difficulty of not, when you don't have a leader, you know, of letting them go ahead and do it on their own . . . . If I sat down with a group, because I knew what it was all about, then all of a sudden things started to move much more quickly . . .
>
> Betty - ( ) easier for everybody if we had just prescribed all the way through.
>
> Susan - Well, maybe it requires a leader, where they go through and do the same activities, but there's somebody helping them along.
>
> Betty - Of course we can't bank on that when it's actually being used in the school districts. We can't bank on who's going to be leading them.
>
> (August 11, 1980)

Mary - You know what it looks to me like? It looks to me like we never really resolved in our minds the difference between this being used by an individual and it being used by a leader. That's, you know, I think we've talked about it, but I don't think we've ever clearly said, I know we've sort of said, "Well, we'll have it so it can be done by people on their own." But at the same time, I expect we, certainly in my own thinking, have thought, oh well, there'll be a group of people doing this and the group will share. You know, there are some things in there to indicate to me that I still haven't given up on the idea of groups of people working together, with sometimes a leader.

Tom - . . . That premise about working without a leader is expensive in terms of time. It means that they have to figure things out. They can't struggle and muck around, spin your wheels a lot. While that may have some benefits, it's certainly costly in terms of

Susan - And frustrating.

Tom - the amount of time they have to put into it.

Susan - I think that came out very clearly with mine because I purposely tried to make them run in a way that they would find at an in-service. And yet I noticed if I went around as they were working with them, things went much more quickly.

. . . .

Tom - We have to go back. It means more efficiency and less frustration.

Susan - Maybe that's why the opening activity has always been so successful with the advisory committee too, because have you not lead them through the opening activity?

Betty - At what part of the process, though, did that idea of having a Leader's Manual and a Participants' Manual get scrapped? That was quite a long time ago, wasn't it?

Tom - Way back . . . . But if we do that, then we pretty well say all people in the group do the same thing.

Mary - Well, yes, unless we have a leader who can be like a primary teacher and handle more than one group. See, I could see at a practical level, a person walking in with whatever number of modules we have, and he would say - he would first of all have the people work out that little questionnaire. Then he would show them a list of the possible modules . . .

Tom - You would hope to have a little visual overview.

Mary - Yes. And then he could have, I suppose, a show of hands as to which modules were appropriate and then divide them into x number of groups and let them do it. That's not going to work. That's not going to work, eh? No matter what we do, that's not going to work, unless those materials are self-instructing. Maybe we should concentrate more on that idea of them being self-instructing. We have to keep that in our minds. If you're going to allow people options of doing one module or another, even if you have a leader there, the leader is going to have problems functioning as a leader with a group. They're going to have to function as a primary teacher functions, which is just moving from group to group, assuming that the materials are self-instructing, that people will only call on them if they need help.

Tom - That didn't work very well. They had problems ( ).

Susan - It's our directions too. They had problems with the directions.

Mary - But I think, you know, maybe that conflict has been in our minds, about the role of the leader in this and it has prevented us from really making them self-instructing.

Tom - Part of the self-instructing idea has been a disinclination to be prescriptive. We've left some latitude in there, and leaving latitude in there has left some frustration.

Mary - Well, I don't know. Susan, what was the nature of the frustration as you went around to the groups? Was it because they didn't understand what was intended?

> Susan - That was part of it. Things like - they didn't understand what to do with activities and sometimes it was just very concrete things like the directions were after the activities done before, and just things like that, you know, that we could fix. I can see ways that we could make things much clearer.
>
> Mary - Alright. Well, see I think maybe we haven't spent that much time on the self-directing nature of the documents because in our minds we've always been shifting back and forth between groups working together, and so, if we went back and said, and designed it so that an individual could take that document, sit down, and work through it.
>
> (August 12, 1980)

At this time the plan was still to have a Participant's Manual and a Leader's Manual. By November, this had evolved to having a Participant's Manual, with a few notes to the leader contained within it.

> Bill - Is it, the first questions I'd like to ask - is it your intention to have a uh, leader for each of these modules or are they intended to be self-instructional, or does the leader have to have a great deal of knowledge in the area, does it have to be like a Regional Office Consultant, or a Social Studies Supervisor, or what-have-you, or can it be um, um, a Department Head who gets a package in the mail, reads through some directions?
>
> Tom - Okay, first three things. The participants' print material - we intend what we gave you to be complete.
>
> Bill - Um, um the drafts.
>
> Tom - That everything there required for a participant to use it, as far as print material goes, we intend it to be there.
>
> Bill - Yes.

Tom - So, if you have some things that you're concerned about that may not be there, then, by all means, we should be addressing those.

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - Secondly, as far as the leaders' print material goes, we tried to design them to be self-directive, that is, a teacher could obtain the print material and, if it was media material accompanying it, obtain that as well, and sit down and, and um, follow it, so that the directions to the leader, in most cases, are really minimal. You'll find that it suggests equipment needed.

Bill - Um hm, whatever equipment's required.

Tom - as part of a note to the leader, kind of thing. And, then inside farther, in Step Three, the demonstration, it usually explains to the leader where these demonstrations came from, what grade they're from, whether they're from a Kanata Kit or Teaching Unit, that sort of thing. But, that's about all there is. And that we designed into the print material, period.

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - Am I correct?

Betty - Um hm.

Bill - We didn't intend a separate Leader's Manual.

Betty - We did way back at the beginning.

Tom - Oh, yeah, way back.

Betty - We did. We were visualizing a Leader's Manual, a Participant's Manual, and so on and so forth.

Bill - Yes.

Betty - And then, gradually our thinking got to the point where we thought we'll make the whole thing

Bill - Self-instructional.

Betty - self-instructional, so that anybody could

> pick it up and do it, if they have the a-v material and a VTR, or whatever they need.
>
> (Nov. 21, 1980)

In November of 1980, then, the developers intended to have a Participant's Manual, with a few notes to the leader contained within it.

By February of 1981, it had become evident that a final decision had to be made.

> Bill - (Sigh) It seems that this is something that Alberta Ed. has been sort of skirting around and not being able to really deal with is - it seems to me that a fundamental decision has to be made. Are these things going to have to rely on a leader being there and a leader being trained to run it, or are they going to be self-instructional and not dependent on a leader?
>
> Betty - It's late now because we're - the way it is now, you know, all of the things that we've mentioned today are because we thought they had to be self-directed.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

The final decision was to have a Participant's and a Leader's Manual for each module. A far greater emphasis was to be placed on the role of a leader.

Four factors stand out as having influenced this decision. One was the perennial problem that participants had with the directions, when left to work through the modules on their own.

> Tom - See, Sheridan has been using it in pretty much a self-directed activity. His role, pretty much, has been get people together, distribute the materials, pick them up when they're done. And he said that, uh, "I've been trying to fade back into the woodwork when they work on it, and let them go." Consequently they spend an awful lot of time chewing on the directions.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

A second factor, evident from pilotting, was that activities and examples at grade levels other than participants' own, tended to seem irrelevant, and were not particularly motivating. Since the in-service program was designed for teachers of grades one to twelve, activities and examples within any one module were taken from materials at several different grade levels. In fact, it could well happen that the only activity in the module in which a participant was involved, which directly pertained to the grade which that participant was teaching, would be Part Six, which involved developing an activity for use with one's own class.

A leader, knowing that he was to provide the Openers module, for instance, to a group of Division IV teachers, would likely substitute the activities in the module with examples at the Division IV level. If the participants could choose any module and use it in a self-directed manner, it would not be possible for a leader to make these accommodations, since he could not predict which modules participants would choose. In terms of time, it is unlikely that he would be able to alter all of the thirteen modules for a particular group.

> Bill - You see, it makes quite a difference. Because if there was a Leader's Manual, well, it's the kind of adjustments, I think, that we would all make. In this Evaluating Values one, there's no way you would go to a group of high school teachers with the example taken from first grade or fifth grade. You'd round up the examples that would be from them or from youngsters they're dealing with.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

A third factor was concerned with Alberta Education's decision to put 2.2 million dollars into providing salaries for one hundred twenty-five resource teachers throughout the province, who would use the Mentor Program as a vehicle for implementation of the new curriculum.

> Bill - It seems to me that the emphasis that Alberta Ed.'s putting on it in terms of um, the money and the time commitment that they are um, putting to this, by having uh, a group of what is he talking about, one hundred or two hundred leaders? One hundred and twenty? Okay. That they're going to be trained to run this series of workshops. That that means that there is going to be a leader who's trained to run the thing and that they're going to be happening in group settings because the school districts are going to be encouraged through grants providing release time for the teachers who particpate. So, uh, it seems that that decision has been made, but the um, the result of it is now apparent for us.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

A fourth factor was that pilot teachers seemed to expect that someone would take the role of leader and guide them through the module.

In February, a series of six pilot sessions was carried out in one school. Participants made it clear that they expected leadership.

> Betty - We explained that the modules were supposed to be as self-directed as possible because the ad hoc committee were (sic) considering every possible use that could be made of them in the province. And that they couldn't depend on a leader. Nobody'd told them that before. They were depending . . . . We saw that right at the beginning, didn't we? They were looking to us all the time for leadership. What do we do now? What do we do next?
>
> (Feb. 11,1981)

After thirteen months of looking at both sides of this issue, the decision was made to make the last two pilot sessions leader-directed.

> Ted - See, I guess in lots of ways the difference between our, between Mentor and most workshops, or most in-services, or whatever it is they go to, is the fact that usually they do have someone who comes in and does his piece, and then has scattered around the room, you know, you can pick up these things when you go. And we've still got that part too. That's our Appendices. But the part that you usually don't get in most workshops is where you sit down with a group of people and develop something so that you know the process for when you go back to do it with your kids. And that seems to me to be the whole purpose of Mentor.
>
> Susan - And they see it as sitting down and getting this workbook to fill out. And they say, "Why go to a workshop to fill out a workbook? It doesn't make sense."
>
> Betty - But we were very conscious right from the start that these were supposed to be self-directive. They weren't supposed to be dependent on somebody teaching the module to them.
>
> Bill - I think that's where we may have to (   ).
>
> Susan - We could have a leader maybe, without having it that directive that it's teaching it to them. Maybe it does need a leader. Teachers sure seem to be saying that it needs a leader.
>
> Betty - Yeah, they seem to want people to take them, somebody to take them through the steps.
>
> . . . .
>
> Susan - These 125 teachers that are going to be trained - are they going to be, is the idea that they will be using Mentor modules?
>
> Ted - Yeah.
>
> Susan - With other teachers?
>
> Bill - Um hm.
>
> . . . .

Susan - It seems sensible for us to leave the self-directed then, in terms of this change.

Betty - Yeah, but we still obeyed the committee in making them self-directed.

Susan - ( )

Betty - Now the script's been changed.

Susan - Exactly. As usual. The script's been changed in midstream. But, maybe that's to our advantage.

. . . .

Ted - We'll lead 'em. We'll lead 'em. We'll say, - I'll share an example with them of the Riverbend one. And then try to get responses from them. "What have _you_ done?" (Laughter) "Nothing." "That figured." "What have you got?" (Laughter)

. . . .

Tom - "Oh, worthless one, what have you done?"

Betty - Rita'll pop you in the nose.

Ted - ( ). Get off your ass and do some social action.

. . . .

Ted - I'll try it. I'll act as though I'm the leader.

Susan - That's right. You'll _be_ the leader.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

It was decided, following these last pilot sessions, that the leader would take a directive role. Each module would be accompanied by a Leader's Manual, as a means of explicating and expanding upon the steps of the module proper. Both the Leader's Manuals and the modules would be available for any teacher who wished to use the program independently.

Another major issue was concerned with the question of where the classroom demonstrations were to be obtained and who was to teach them.

At first the issue seemed to be simply whether one class would be filmed through an entire unit or a different class would be used for each episode.

> Mary - By the way, there was one other decision that we had to make related to all of this and that was the one that you raised toward the end of that meeting, and that is - are the samples which are developed to illustrate each of these going to be from a continuous activity going on in the classroom or separate episodes?
>
> . . . .
>
> Tom - The things that, I guess when I got into this Data Analysis one, one of the things that struck me was that the videotape, most effectively should be done in a classroom where the kids have been working on this unit for a period of time, and they've been collecting data and organizing as they go along and the classroom abounds with displays of things that they've accumulated as the unit has progressed and when they come to this point in time in the unit they've got tubs of data laying around that they're in the process of trying to make sense of and to analyze. And yet, what seems more likely to be the case is that they'll go into a Grade nine classroom and they'll say to the teacher, "We need to stage this lesson so that we can get it into our in-service program. Will you teach this for us next week? Here's the script. Go ahead and do this." The kids won't have the background that lead up to that data analysis activity, and so the kind of responses you'll get from kids won't be the same as you'd hoped they might be had they been in midflight in a unit that had been going on. The likelihood of getting what would come across as a valid classroom scene, a demonstration of the reality of a classroom, as they work through this process in a unit, seems less likely to achieve that.
>
> Mary - So . . .

> Tom - An alternative, then, I'm saying, would be to try and take a few units, get them taught, use some classrooms from beginning to end,
>
> Ted - Well, I can see advantages of it too, but I think there's a tendency when people go through in-services where it's focussed on one classroom they see that as some individual who's considered to be sort of an exemplar, if you want, and they follow him. They always, I think there's that failure to recognize the situation; whereas when you've got different situations, different approaches of teachers, I think that probably they can relate to it better.
>
> Susan - But Tom's point is really valid. What's the point of having kids going around analyzing data that they didn't collect or organize?
>
> Ted - Well, that's true.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

There was concern, at this time too, that ACCESS might decide to hire actors and have the classroom episodes scripted.

> Hugh - . . . we're going to hire actors, teachers. We're going to hire kids who are actors, and they're going to come in and there are going to be thirty scripts, twenty-five scripts, what have you, and they're going to do this, exactly as you want it, saying exactly what you want them to say. I'm not saying - I would believe that you could come up with a fair degree of reality. It would look very, very real. I think it's possible. I think that's what his answer's going to be.
>
> Tom - I don't think that's a very good answer.
>
> Hugh - I'm not giving you what you want to hear. I'm telling you what may happen.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

In an August 27th, 1980 meeting, the developers spent several hours in disucssion of this issue. They listed a number of alternatives and reviewed the advantages and disadvantages of each. A summary of the discussion is outlined below. It is followed by excerpts from the meeting transcript.

Alternatives	Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Give lesson plans to ACCESS and take no further responsibility for the demonstrations	Would save time.	Lack of confidence in the results.
2. Developers prepare lesson plans for different teachers to do different segments.	Could show a variety of situations; i.e., rural and urban, inexperienced and experienced teachers, different divisions, split grade and straight grade classes.	Lack of continuity between segments. Increased cost of filming. Developers' consultative role becomes much more difficult. Lose credibility in the eyes of teachers viewing the demonstrations (unless each class happens to, in fact, be actually doing the unit, a segment of which is being taped.)
3. Developers identify classrooms and follow each through a unit.	Continuity. Convenient for consultative role of developers. Credibility Could do this at Calgary Demonstration School, thus overcoming the Advisory Committee's objection to Edmonton	Advisory Committee would object to use of Edmonton teachers. Time consuming. Teachers might prefer to view a variety of classroom situations. Might be difficult to find teachers to do it.

4. Demonstration School in Calgary	Overcomes technical problems.	Developers' consultative role becomes more difficult. Teachers might prefer to view a variety of classroom situations.
5. (a) Developers teach a unit or have practising teachers teach it for course credit.	Quality of lessons. Credibility of lessons because they are part of an ongoing unit.	Time consuming. Would have to be in or near Edmonton. If the developers do it, they might be criticized for not being classroom teachers.
(b) Developers teach parts of a unit or have practising teachers teach them for course credit.	Quality of lessons.	Time consuming. Lack of continuity between segments. Would have to be in or near Edmonton. The developers could be criticized for not being classroom teachers.
6. Developers identify a rural and an urban classroom and follow each through a unit.	Continuity. Credibility. Would show two very different situations.	Teachers might prefer to view a variety of situations.

Betty - I wish we had a school right in the

Ted - university

Betty - university here. It'd be great.

Tom - Calgary does.

Betty - Yeah.

Susan - We talked before about using it. They've got it well

Tom - set up for sound.

Betty - Would it answer a lot of these concerns that we've been expressing - like captive teacher, doing the Kanata Kit, doing Teaching Unit, you know, real-life situation that teachers will believe? Would it answer all of them?

Tom - Many of them.

Ted - I wonder if we should be using it then?

Betty - Why shouldn't we do it? Why shouldn't we do it because if it solves a lot of our problems . . .

Susan - Do they have regular class sizes?

Tom - Um hm.

Betty - It's got all those factors that we've talked about?

Tom - Yeah, it's a school that has - it's set up so that there are microphones placed throughout the classroom. And there's a viewing gallery with one-way glass that's elevated well up above the classroom. So you sit up in that viewing gallery. And, as I recall, we had a set of buttons that we could push to turn on different microphones around the room.

(Talking at once. Unintelligible)

Betty - Wouldn't that be ideal? Wouldn't it be easier for the production people too, the video equipment?

Susan - The sound would be better.

. . . .

Betty - I know in my own experience, a few teachers that I've - I don't know as they'd be willing to do it, I can't answer for it, but I know they'd be good at it. They could do it, in the city here, if we wanted to do that. But what about these things, as Ted was saying, these technical things that we can't do much about? Like the physical environment might not be good.

Ted - See, like, you were saying things like they've got microphones that you can zero in on and, that would make a tremendous amount of difference. Whereas if you have an ordinary video camera with a mike on it, you point it at the kid, but you can get a lot of chair squeaking noises, and if you've got carpets, and all those things. Certainly - perhaps enhance the quality of it.

Tom - But if you were going to make the media component fourteen modules, in a couple of classrooms, then you could afford to install some wiring and lay down a piece of carpet.

Ted - Yeah, I'm sure, I'm sure that ACCESS have all that where they can, you know, it shouldn't really be such a problem as it's turned out to be. And yet, they all seem to come back at you by saying, "Well, you know, you're asking for the moon."

. . . .

Betty - The, uh, why don't one of us do it instead of asking a classroom teacher to do it?

Tom - I don't know if . . .

Betty - Why don't we do it? Ask somebody to let us have their kids. Rather than us doing all these tortures of figuring out who we're going to get and what we're going to do. For God's sake, I'll do it. That would solve everything. Get all the physical characteristics ironed out. Just give me a group of kids and I'll teach them anything, any crap. And it'll be done. And I'm reasonably good at it, because I've been at the game a Hell of a long time.

Tom - Well, I . . .

Betty - Now, the second best choice for that is, if we're going to do it in the city here, let's find someone that one of us knows is reliable, that we're not going to have to worry too much about them making a big hash of it.

. . . .

Tom - We have a policy decision to make, it seems to me.

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - Are we going to say to Smith, "We want this set up to follow two classrooms right through a unit and go in and tape whenever they're doing that piece that's a good example. We're gonna collect kids' work and incorporate some examples of kids' work as illustrations. Here are some research questions that Miss Jones' Grade Five class generated."

. . . .

Tom - We picked, let's say Grade Five, Grade Eight. Those are two midpoints of Division Two and Division Three. Then you go in and get some teacher to agree to let us use their class to generate the media examples. What Brad and I had talked about way back last February, when we were first thinking about this, was to try and identify some of our students that were pretty sharp, who could, as a credit course, go in and teach a unit. So we say to the classroom teacher, "Okay, we'll take care of your social studies for you for the next few months." Maybe we could have two or three students who could get credit for a course. Take a Teaching Unit . . .

Betty - And go right through it.

Tom - Or go to the classroom and offer assistance in preparing for the lesson.

Betty - Or take turns at teaching different things for different videotapes.

Tom - And then you would identify the activities in that unit plan that you thought were good illustrations of each of the modules that we're working on.

. . . .

Tom - . . . planned what we're going to say to Smith. "Here's a lesson plan. Go find somebody and have it done." Right?

Ted - Yeah.

Tom - That's one.

Ted - The second one is we find somebody and prepare the lesson plan and then say to Smith, "You go film."

. . . .

Ted - That's the second alternative, yeah. Different people do all of the various bits.

Betty - Now, what was the first one?

. . . .

Ted - The first one that we just give the stuff to Smith and then turn him loose to find them and do the whole thing.

Tom - And the third is that we try and identify two classrooms and trace them through

Ted. - Yeah.

Tom - the whole series.

Betty - Now, the second one, we generate the stuff and then say to Smith, "You film it." Is that it?

Ted - We find twenty-eight people. That would be the most.

Tom - Are there others?

Betty - I'm too tired.

Tom - What else could we do?

Ted - Well, we had the idea about Calgary.

Betty - Yeah, put that down.

Ted - I don't know how we would quite do that one, but ... That's because of the technical things as much as anything else and hopefully being the university experimental place, the quality would be good. And I suppose the fifth was that we, that people like Betty or somebody would do it.

. . . .

Tom - Alright, well, the main advantage of that first one is that it's . . .

Ted - Out of our hands.

Betty - He does it.

Tom - We simply say to Smith, "Here, go take care of it and don't bother us about it."

Ted - I don't think we can do that one somehow.

Susan - The big disadvantage is that you can't, you know, trust that everything will work out as we want it if we don't take responsibility for it.

Tom - The disadvantage, I guess, is that we don't have much confidence in the quality of what gets generated that way.

Susan - Right.

Betty - It wouldn't meet our needs, I suspect it wouldn't meet our needs.

Ted - So Number One is low.

Tom - Number Two, we select twenty-eight teachers to tape media examples.

Ted - There could be less than twenty-eight.

Susan - Are we not using . . .

Tom - A bunch.

Ted - Yeah, a bunch.

Tom - Alright. We don't worry about quality.

Ted - No, the organization of that might be difficult.

Susan - Impossible almost.

Ted - Whereas, with the next one, the third one, when you just have the two, and we follow them through . . .

Tom - Well, but wait just a minute. For Number Two, I think one of the main advantages is Linda Adams' argument, that it gives you the opportunity to show urban, rural, uh, split classes, um, Division One, Division Two, Division Three, Division Four, inexperienced teachers, some old experienced teachers . . .

Ted - But we still want exemplars of those twenty-eight.

Tom - Yeah, alright, but it does provide an answer to Linda Adams' concern about, "Oh, you aren't going to show us these Edmonton teachers, and these Edmonton kids, and these Edmonton schools, and these Edmonton books, and these Edmonton libraries." You guys should go to some of these meetings.

Betty - I've heard it on the tapes. No thank you.

Tom - Number three. That is Number Three?

Betty - We find people to do it. We do it.

Tom - Okay, the problem there would be, yeah, Getting some good people to do it.

Ted - But organization-wise . . .

Tom - Yeah, another problem would be the disadvantage of selling it to the advisory committee because they would immediately have conniption fits.

Betty - Why?

Tom - Because it's the same old Edmonton teachers.

Betty - Oh, that. Oh, I see. I thought you meant something different.

Susan - It's a good argument, such as the continuity of the thing, that way, as being . . .

Tom - They dismiss that though. They said, "How can you argue continuity? I thought your basic proposal was that teachers select out of the fourteen, ones that they want to do? They might start with Evaluating Knowledge and then you get no continuity."

Susan - Yes, you don't get continuity, but you get the connection. Say, if they do, even just two modules, they can maybe see a connection because it's the same unit.

Betty - Or is that not into our third one here, is that if we find the people to do it, it's this do a whole unit deal?

Tom - We take two months, and we say, "Okay, let's take this Kanata Kit and go in there with it and teach that Kanata Kit for two months." And when we come to the good example of Synthesizing Data,

Betty - Right.

Tom - then he tapes it.

Susan - It's got lots of advantages.

Ted - Look, the thing is, that one has lots of advantages. If, if Smith is our problem, Number Two is the one to go for because he'll be all over Hell's half-acre with his cameras trying to do that. And he'll be against that right now.

Susan - He'll be against Number Two.

Ted - Against Number Two. If he's got to go up to Crooked Creek to take, you know, an experienced teacher, go to Calgary, and over to Lethbridge, and . . .

Susan - That's going to increase the cost too, isn't it?

Betty - I don't give a damn what it costs. That's their problem.

Tom - If they decide to throw some bucks after it . . .

Susan - That's certainly different from June.

Ted - If they're throwing bucks, I wouldn't be at all surprised if they don't come up with Number Two.

Betty - A lot of different clips from all over the province and all those different people and . . .

Ted - (   )

Betty - God, it'd be nice to let them. They'd be in a real hodge-podge. Couldn't it? You know, all sorts of categories . . .

Susan - (   ) about what we're doing.

Tom - Our consultative role, because that's part of our responsibility to play a consultative role with production, becomes a rather demanding one because of uh . . .

Ted - Well, Number, Number, Number, well, when you use two people, Number Five, could be the thing.

Susan - Yeah, it could be two people from here.

Ted - Could be two people from here or it could be people from Calgary which are doing the same in that school.

Betty - No, I don't see three and five being the same at all.

Ted - Why not?

Tom - He's saying they could be.

Ted - They could be.

Betty - Yeah, yeah, yeah.

Ted - They're not necessarily. No, it's not the same, in that sense, but, I mean, if Linda is always worrying about Edmonton, well I mean . . .

Betty - Oh, I don't give a damn if it's down in Calgary except that it's inconvenient for us if we have to get involved in it.

Tom - It would be interesting to go back over the decision-making process here. See how we worked through the inquiry process.

Susan - Now, we're resolving the issue.

. . . .

Susan - Listing the advantages and disadvantages - the most advantages seem to be by Number Three.

Tom - I'm not so sure that the advisory committee would agree with you on that. You were saying the most.

Susan - Yes.

Tom - I think they would say, "You have to limit those."

Betty - They might see Two as being good.

Tom - I think - well, one of the things that I think is another factor here, and I'll come back to it some time because I keep thinking back to the response that our students had to those Sydney microteaching films. And their response consistently was, "That's not reality. Those things have no credibility with me. They're too fake." And to the extent, it seems to me, that you dash in, tape a lesson, dash out, that you lose credibility. It's harder to convince people that yes, this was a good example of synthesizing data out of an ongoing unit. It seems to me that the best way to get credibility is to have a real class, a real teacher, go through a real unit, and encounter the real problems that you always encounter in teaching social studies.

Susan - That's a very strong argument for the advisory committee.

Tom - Some of your so-called exemplary lessons may not be as exemplary as you wish, but are useful because they are going to have credibility. Teachers are going to look at them and say, "Um hm, I can understand that happening."

. . . .

Tom - Well, where are we here? Number three. How about Number Four, the Demo School in Calgary? The advantages are largely technical.

. . . .

Betty - . . . and it would also satisfy these Calgary people who say that we do everything up in Edmonton.

Tom - Alright, Number Five. We teach the lesson ourselves.

Betty - Now, is this one involving us following a unit, like Number Three? We would, if it was us, as opposed to uh, other people doing it, would we do it this way, running a whole unit trying to teach a whole unit bit by bit. Or would we go in and do bits of a unit, assuming that the classroom teacher would do the rest?

Tom - Those are two separate alternatives?

Betty - It seems to me that's Five-a and Five-b.

Tom - Right.

Betty - Yeah.

Ted - The only thing, only . . .

Betty - See, I'm thinking of the disadvantage of that being the time for any of us.

Ted - That, well, that too, you know. They'd say, "Who is that?"

Susan - It's not a teacher."

Ted - "It's not a teacher, you know. Those are education students at university."

Betty - Well, how are they going to know that?

Tom - Oh, somewhere or another, they'll have to say, "Thanks are extended to," and . . .

Susan - Yeah.

Ted - Especially if they're going to be banging them all around the province. The first thing they want to do is put big ACCESS on them and they'd probably have who was connected with it. "The teacher, Mrs. B. Griffiths, Ph.D. student, University of Alberta."

Betty - In brackets, "Taught school since Jesus Christ was born." That ought to be on there. That, that wouldn't matter, you don't think? (Chuckle)

Tom - ( ) get excellent quality ( )

Betty - We get, we would get, what made me think of it, or even suggest it, was that we would get what we wanted. Right? It sounds very selfish, but we would get exactly what we wanted. We'd write the script, and whoever did it, would do it the way the script said, you know. And we wouldn't have to worry about - then it would become Smith's problem to get it technically good because we'd be trying to guarantee, you know, the quality of the content, if you like.

Tom - Other advantages? If you taught the whole unit you would have the credibility.

Betty - Of that.

Tom - I think they'd be real. You'd get to know the kids well enough so that you could call them by name. You wouldn't have the problem of "People in Need."

Betty - I'm beginning to think though, look at the time this is going to take.

Ted - Yeah.

Susan - Yeah, think of the time. That's the other thing.

. . . .

Ted - My preference, my preference would be if we found two people, and they went right through a unit. And that could be either, that could be the Calgary one as well. So I could see those two together.

Betty - That's three and four.

Ted - Three and four. But I suspect the committee will go for Number three.

Susan - Then maybe we should present a strong argument for the other two.

Ted - I think we did. I think Tom did.

Susan - I do too.

Betty - You could sell that.

Tom - I tried one day.

Betty - We sell refrigerators to Eskimoes. We could sell that to the committee.

Tom - I'll tell you why I quit smoking some day. We, we discussed that with the committee and they were not buying it, and particularly Linda Adams was not buying it.

Betty - Well, would she be happy if we go to Calgary and do it, where it's Calgary kids, and Calgary classrooms and Calgary books? What's the difference? Everything's just the same here. What big deal is it?

Susan - Classrooms are going to be the same.

Betty - Sure.

Ted - ( )

Betty - Who's gonna know which part of the province the classroom's in - I mean, Edmonton, Calgary?

Ted - Well, what about their argument? But I think the cost, obviously, is a tremendous factor here, Susan - Well, yeah.

Ted - except Number Two. Knowing this province though, if it's half a million dollars, you know, they can kick that out in no time at all.

Betty - Would Smith be prepared to go to Calgary?

Tom - Bill Smith is operating out of the assumption that these things will be generated in a variety of different settings because he sat through several advisory committee meetings where Linda was . . .

Betty - So he's prepared to go to Crooked Creek and . . .

Tom - I would guess so.

Betty - Sleepy Hollow, and God knows where all.

Susan - What's the reason for it? Is it political, just political?

Ted - No, it is and it isn't. I think what they're trying to say is that we have to recognize, in the province of Alberta, there are all sorts of ( ).

. . . .

Tom - The only thing that we have left to do right now, I guess, is to try and resolve this about media examples. What do we do about that? We've got five alternatives down and then we went through a decision-making process

Betty - ( ) arguing ( )

Ted - ( ) two teachers and we'll follow them through. I really don't care whether they're in Edmonton or Calgary. That's probably the one which is best for us organization-wise and development of the lesson plans, and the whole bit. But I think that the committee from what Tom has said, will opt for Number two, where you have about twenty-eight people starting in Fort Chip to Pincher Creek, the one room school to a . . .

Brad - I don't think that Smith will allow them to go for that one.

Ted - No, that's the cost factor then, you see, but . . .

. . . .

Brad - Two teachers in a local school.

. . . .

Ted - You can work with these people. You can help them with their lesson plans.

Brad - You can get them the material.

Tom - You're getting this all down?

Susan - Yes. That's the one that we, as a committee, seem to prefer.

Betty - Which one is that?

Susan - Number three.

. . . .

Tom - I think what we've got to do is get all five of us to go and talk with the committee. Get an equal number of people working from that point of view. Because we sure got talked down on that one last time.

Brad - We did.

Tom - ( )

Ted - He can overrule us, can he? He can say we're going to go to twenty-eight scattered points?

Tom - The alternative is not to convene that committee until the direction is . . .

Brad - Yeah, I don't think that would be a wise thing to do though.

Ted - Well, maybe . . .

Brad - It just makes good sense in terms of continuity. I see an Opener in a fifth grade class and if I see . . .

Tom - The response to that was that a lot of people probably were only going to do one or two modules. And they may start with one on Evaluating Knowledge.

Brad - But, still, for those people who do go through it . . .

. . . .

Brad - Why not just have one classroom of kids do one module and take off?

Susan - Right, they don't need to see rural and urban.

Ted - It's really a, really a funny argument.

Betty - Catch-22. That's what they're in.

Tom - Maybe what we should do - how does this grab you?

Betty - This alternative six?

Tom - Alternative six is a combination of three and two or three and something, where we have one classroom set up like McKernan or someplace. And another classroom set up at Gwynne.

Brad - ( )

Betty - Who's doing that?

Brad - And when you're, when you're inside that classroom, what's going to be different? Let's try and think about this, whether it's Gwynne, Calgary, or McKernan.

Betty - We just said that before you came in. Who's gonna know?

Tom - I think several things are going to be different because I think of those kids down at Gwynne, some of the things they filled out on the dayline. Remember the dayline?

Brad - You get a dummy in Edmonton do do it.

Tom - No!!! I'm not saying, "Dumb!" (Spoken loudly)

(Laughter)

Tom - I'm saying, whose life experiences are different and when . . .

Betty - Oh, you're so nice. That's a lovely euphemism. "Life experiences are different."

Tom - I'm saying you'll get different responses from those kids. One of the things those kids in "People In Need," over here at McKernan, they're talking about people in India and Africa. Perhaps people down in Gwynne are going to be talking about reserve kids that come into Wetaskiwin on Saturday mornings.

. . . .

Ted - It's not really - in a sense, all that they're going to listen for is for the teachers to note how to

Susan - Exactly!

Ted - use an Opener. So it really doesn't matter what the responses of the kids are. I mean, if the kid says, well, you know, Division One about your needs, he says, "An African." I mean the fact that he said, "An African," isn't really what the teacher should be listening to at all. Or if they say, "The reserve kids down the road," it's the technique that you use, either in Analyzing Data or . . .

Susan - Yeah, but teachers do listen for those things and do object.

Tom - Your argument by, I think misses the concern that they have about the teacher - I can remember Linda saying, "You know, teachers are going to look at that and they're going to say, 'That will never work in my classroom because' and here are the reasons they'll give: a. I teach a split grade and they've got ( ). b. I'm teaching in a rural setting. My kids don't have those urban experiences that those kids are using as their examples. No wonder they understand it - c, d, e, f, g."

Ted - Linda . . .

Betty - "My kids aren't as verbal as the ones . . ."

Ted - Linda is going to have to be told to climb a rope.

Betty - Sit on it, Linda.

Ted - The point then, that Linda is missing, is okay, all of those questions, all of those things that - mine's a split grade, and my little rural kids are dumb, and all of those things, that's fine. When you get to the development stage, which is really what they're there for,

> Betty - The workshop.
>
> Ted - you can take into effect that your kids are dumb, and they're goint to put something on a dateline that's different from what the smart kids do, or the fact you've got a split grade, or, you know.
>
> (Aug. 27, 1980)

It is clear from these excerpts, that the developers' preference was for Alternative #3 or Alternative #6,that an entire unit be filmed in each of two classrooms. However, according to one of the two developers who attended the ad hoc committee meetings, the preference of ACCESS and that of the ad hoc committee, was alternative #2, that the developers prepare lesson plans for different teachers to do different segments. In the end, this was the alternative which was chosen.

A third major issue could be stated as - Should an in-service program with the intent of teaching about inquiry, use inquiry?

The developers began with the supposition that the in-service program should use an inquiry approach. Three possible reasons for this were:

a) the in-service program was intended to assist in the implementation of a new social studies curriculum. The fundamental orientation of this curriculum is intended to be one of inquiry,

b) the developers, themselves, considered inquiry to be the most effective way to teach. This was probably based on a combination of intuition, experience, and reported research,

c) research points to the efficacy of learning by doing.

Therefore, if teachers were to implement the new inquiry oriented social studies curriculum and increase their repertoire of teaching strategies, the in-service which was attempting to achieve these ends, should itself use inquiry as its predominant teaching/ learning mode.

This was, at first, an implicit decision, since, until August, when pilotting results began to come in, the decision itself, to use an inquiry approach, was not problematic. Rather, the way in which it was to be used was questioned.

> Mary - Well, Brad, before you came in we were talking about the sort of fundamental
>
> Ted - Format.
>
> Mary - purpose of the module. It's to be a self-instructing kind of module. Okay, then given that, it is a module which assumes that we have the right answers, and the right answers are placed within the module, or is it to be the development of a series of experiences for teachers, from which they are making some, or drawing some conclusions, and analyzing experiences that they have and drawing their own conclusions, and the theoretical position is something against which they could check or legitimize, or whatever word you want to use, what they have come up with? Then it would seem, like if you put the answers right in the text of this module, you're in fact, saying we know the right way to do this, and here are the characteristics of, let's say, of a good Opener.

. . . .

Mary - But I'm saying, "What is its function? Is it a directive function where it says - this is the way to do it or is it a support material for - hey, you've developed some ideas that you think are good characteristics of, let's say of an Opener? Here's what an authority says - which, then, would place that, let's say in an appendix of the module, as opposed to right within the text."

Brad - I'm - I guess I'm not really hung up on it one way or the other.

. . . .

Brad - I guess I would focus on what they're going to do and how we can help in terms of an experience that other people have had in trying to complete the same kind of task. Put that before them.

Mary - So are you saying that the theoretical data should be right within the module itself?

. . . .

Mary - I guess the only point I'm making is that when you put the list in that's on Page 7, you are saying, "These are the criteria for a good Opener." Because there isn't a question there that says - you say, "How well do the Openers demonstrated meet these criteria?" Okay, so in other words you're saying, "These are the standards. Did your Opener meet the standards?" We don't question these criteria.

Brad - Maybe it's in the way it's presented. It seems to me that everyone shouldn't have to recreate the wheel and if people elsewhere have had experience with Openers and we can put that in front of them as some . . .

Mary - I'm not arguing that point, Brad. I think that there should, you know, that this kind of thing should be available. But I'm saying, "What is its role?" Like, like why, for instance didn't we say, "Are these good criteria for an Opener?" And if we put them in there as, "They are."

Brad - Well, what if we change it and just said, "Here are criteria for Openers developed by other people."

Mary - "How useful do you find these criteria?" Okay, I think that's a different thing than saying, "Take what you've done and check it against this because this is right."

Brad - It's the context within which the experience also is presented that you were concerned about.

Mary - Yeah. Right. Right. Yeah, not the, not having that there to verify. No.

Brad - Yeah. Well, I'd agree.

Mary - Just to say, just because this appeared in a book somewhere, or that we put it together, that makes it right. It makes it a set of criteria which are just, are open to criticism in the same way that anything else is. So, "You've developed some criteria for Openers. Here's what somebody else has done. How do you feel about their criteria?" I mean it may be that teachers like their own better.

Brad - And the purpose of that is that someone else may have had more time and they have maybe

Mary - Well, sure.

Brad - ten minutes to look at

Mary - That's right.

Brad - the problem and . . .

Mary - I'm not arguing about putting this kind of thing in. I'm just saying, "In what context does it appear?"

Brad - It occurs to me that the series is the Mentor Series.

Mary - So, if this is going to appear within the module, then it should not appear as the right way, but as a way which some people have thought about. And it's as open to criticism, and needs to be criticized, in the same way that what teachers are developing themselves needs to be criticized.

> Tom - Okay, how about if it read on Page 7, Number 2 - "The following are criteria often suggested for evaluating Openers. Check ones which you agree are important. How well did the Openers demonstrated meet the criteria checked?"
>
> Mary - Okay, something to that effect so that it makes these things problematic as well.
>
> . . . .
>
> Mary - Yeah, thing in there, then we make it problematic as well. We raise questions about - Is it appropriate? And then it can appear in the body. It doesn't need to be an appendix. It can go right in with what we're doing. Okay.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

By August, the message being received from teachers was that using inquiry to learn about inquiry, while intellectually honest, was an inefficient use of time. As one pilot teacher asked, "Is this kind of guidance an elaborate way to gain little knowledge?"

The problem became one of attempting to please teachers, as participants in the program, while at the same time attempting to retain at least those elements of inquiry which the developers considered to be of most importance.

A major change occured at this point, with regard to the extent to which the in-service experience was to be shaped by the participants. Rather than being asked to generate a set of characteristics of the inquiry skill with which a particular module was dealing, participants were now simply asked to do some critical analysis of a set which was presented to them.

Brad - Did they like having to generate the criteria themselves?

Susan - No, they didn't.

Brad - Lay it on.

Susan - Exactly. That's what they were saying. They would much rather have somebody tell me da, da, da, da. Then I can go away and do what I want with it.

Mary - There's a perspective on social studies.

Susan - Yeah, exactly.

Betty - Doesn't it blow your mind?

Susan - They were saying it's an intellectually honest way of doing it. They didn't use those words but they're saying that the modules are using the inquiry process, but we're not interested in using it.

. . . .

Betty - But the stuff that people want cut out, as Susan was saying, are the things that we think are the core of the program - getting teachers to reflect on this stuff.

. . . .

Betty - Well, I'm happier with the stuff where teachers are generating their own criteria, or whatever it is. You know, teacher directed activities seem to be very useful.

Mary - The teachers are happy with applying the principles. Right? So, is there some way that we can, um, use that experience as one where they are more critically reflective, as opposed to generating all the criteria on their own?

. . . .

Mary - Susan, you worked with them.

Susan - Um hm.

Mary - Um, how would you change it now?

Susan - To please them? I'd give them more, make it more prescriptive, give them the criteria, and let them go ahead and use it, apply it. But don't have them come up with it.

Mary - Not to generate the principles.

Susan - That's right. And I would - I don't know what else I would take out, but certainly . . . .

Mary - Would they be willing to reflect on the principles once they've applied them?

Susan - Briefly.

Mary - Alright, is your feeling that basically they don't want to, they just want to be told what the right way is?

Susan - Yeah.

Mary - Well then, that leads us to the heart of the whole thing.

Betty - I'm reading prescription as meaning - tell us how to do this and we'll do it or not do it.

Susan - Um hm.

Betty - And I think we know from past experience that if that's the way things are done, then they'll go away and they won't do it.

Mary - Okay, but what - let's try to be very specific about what it is that we think has to happen.

Betty - In the whole Mentor project? I think one of our first considerations has to be that teachers have to learn how to use the social inquiry process. They have to learn what it means. Right?

Susan - But we're ramming it down their throats in a way. They're not going to use it, are they, if they're not happy with it?

Betty - No, that's true, but by the same token they can't use any of this stuff that's been prepared if they don't know how to design a lesson around the process.

. . . .

Tom - They're sending us a message and the message is - "The payoff isn't worth the amount of time that you're making us invest."

Susan - That's right.

Betty - Look at this comment. "I think I would rather just be given an explanation of ways to go about these things, rather than spending all the time actually doing them." This is what I read as prescription. They're saying, you know, that person anyway, is saying, "Tell me how to do it and then I'll either do it or not. Don't make me sit here for three hours doing it, wading through it."

Susan - Yes.

Betty - It's kind of interesting in that comment there about not being interested in playing the role of a Grade Nine student, is really interesting because probably by doing that she, that person, would have got more insights into the process than by sitting as a passive participant, as, you know, practising teacher. So what they're saying is, in effect, "Don't put me through all this schmozz. Just tell us what I'm supposed to do and I'll do it or not."

. . . .

Betty - I don't know how you guys feel, but to me those first activities are very important to them. I think they are.

Susan - We think every activity is important.

Betty - The ones in which they have to do some thinking, I think, are the ones that are important, not just applying.

Tom - Here's one that says, "When you actively participate in the modules, which we did, you become more aware of the process in action."

Susan - A couple of them said that.

Mary - The message is clear though, that if we have an initial activity that they are going to experience, it's got to be short and sweet and to the point and let them identify those things quickly and not do any discussion.

Betty - In fact, I think they even say, "Tell us what the message is. Don't make us try and figure it out."

Susan - Yeah, they don't like these roundabout ways of not getting to the point. They want . . .

Mary - Which is interesting, because that means they won't do it with their kids either.

Tom - Oh yeah, listen to this. "The module itself uses an inquiry approach. Is the method a time waster for in-servicing? Why can't we be more prescriptive? Teachers need more guidance. Is this kind of guidance an elaborate way to gain little knowledge?"

Mary - They don't have any faith in the inquiry process. So you know they don't do it in their classrooms.

. . . .

Brad - Give them their money back?

Susan - I've spent it. Do we want to be true to what we intended to do all along or do we want people to use the program? Those are the two alternatives?

Mary - Well, no. I think that there is a compromise in there where - where ...

. . . .

Betty - Well, I suppose the difficulty is that we're trying to force teachers into a position of reflection, force them into it, where they don't want to be. They want to be told what to do.

Mary - I think that may be being . . .

Betty - Ideally you should be reflecting in the whole thing, you know, every step of the way.

Mary - I think that may be being unfair. I think that they're maybe saying, "There are parts of it we feel we can reflect on, which are the parts where we're actually working in the classroom and making those kinds of decisions. And maybe we can reflect on the principles, but we can't generate them. You've got to give us a starting place."

Betty - But they can also . . . .

Brad - We do eventually.

Mary - In fact we do anyway. And so that would lead to a feeling of, "You've got the answers anyway. Why the Hell didn't you just tell us?" I can see that because we eventually come to saying, "Here are some principles." I can see why people say, "Well, why the devil didn't you tell us that in the first place instead of making us go through this whole thing?" You know, "If you've got a hidden agenda, then why the devil don't you make it clear to us?"

Betty - What about the personal satisfaction that someone in the in-service would get if their criteria they had established or generated, or whatever, agreed with the principles that you had there? Wouldn't that mean . . .?

Brad - They would say, "We had this already. Why bother?"

Mary - I think that if we can change our thinking a little bit, so that we get them reflecting on the thing that they obviously want to reflect on, which is how you

Betty - Apply this stuff.

Mary - apply this. But we can extend that to reflecting about why, why are we doing it?

Brad - Okay well . . .

Mary - Are the principles worth holding?

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - Now the other piece of feedback that I guess - and I don't know quite what to make of it - is that business about the extent to which we're dependent upon an inductive overall approach to it. What do we do with that?? What do you think your students were really saying about that?

Susan - They were saying that they wanted to be told more, rather than having it come from them. They were saying they didn't like using the inquiry process to learn about the inquiry process.

Tom - See that was the thing that got us off to this revision of it. Two things - one, it took so long. And two - they seemed to be saying this sort of thing. So then we changed it to that version, gave it to John Black's class, and they're telling us in spades, you know.

Brad - Well, let's go back to the original model. Let's shorten it. Let's look at some other ways of getting them involved in that induction thing that are a little less painful.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Ted - Yeah, it worries me, steps one and two. Here I am coming to an in-service thing, assuming the worst. I don't even understand the damn circle in that book. So I'm coming along and one of the ways to get into social issues is by using an Opener. I don't know what an Opener is and the first thing you're going to do is make me do one. And then you're going to ask me the strengths of it and the weaknesses of it, and the . . . .

Betty - No, no. We're going to tell you. We're going to tell you in Step Two. We're not going to ask you to generate. We decided we weren't going to do that. Am I right?

Ted - What do you say?

Betty - Step Two, characteristics of an Opener will be listed. We're not going to ask the teachers to generate them. We're going to tell them then.

(August 27, 1980)

The program retained its inquiry orientation, with modifications based on pilot feedback. The modifications were focussed on Step Two. Using the Openers module as an example, participants were originally asked to generate criteria for a good Opener in Step Two, on the basis of an experience with an Opener in Step One. This was changed to providing them with a list of criteria and asking them to evaluate the criteria by three means; checking those which they considered to be most important, adding to the list, and deciding which, if any, of the criteria were met in the experience in Step One.

In the end, the basic format of the modules remained the same. However, what had originally been an implicit decision was made explicit through the re-examination which grew out of the response of participants in pilot sessions.

An issue which the developers never seemed quite able to resolve was just what was the role of ACCESS-TV. It was never quite clear just how much could be expected of that organization.

At first it seemed reasonably clear which tasks came within the realm of production and which were development.

The developers perceived their primary responsibility to be the generation of the print materials. A minor responsibility could involve making suggestions to ACCESS regarding the content of the media examples.

ACCESS's area of responsibility was to include the production of the media examples and the physical design, editting, presentation, and printing of the print materials.

> Mary - Well, we didn't make the decision really about how those things should be, but we just said, "This is what we want," and I understand that ACCESS Alberta will decide what's the best way to do that. So if they decide to put that on filmstrip, or whatever, and . . .
>
> Tom - Alright. I guess that's the thing. We decide on the samples to demonstrate and they decide on the ( ).
>
> Mary - We decide on what we think is important and then leave the technical problems to them.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - And it's a production problem, isn't it? It's not a developers' problem.
>
> . . . .
>
> (Visitor from Alta. Ed.) - I like Ted's attitude. ACCESS, as the production people, can solve it.

> Ted - That's what they keep telling us.
>
> Mary - It may end up being our problem anyway.
>
> Tom - Well, eventually it comes down to a problem that's going to affect the quality and the credibility of what comes on tape before teachers all over this province. I don't think we can just ignore it and say, "That's too bad. It's not our problem. Let somebody else worry about that."
>
> Mary - No, but Smith is the one who's always said . . .
>
> Ted - Who's always said, Keep out of it."
>
> Tom - I know that.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - But in a sense, Tom, I think what I'm saying anyway, is that we're, you know, it's been clearly spelled out in that production's production, development's development.
>
> Mary - Spell out what it is we want and then let them worry about it. Then after that, then you negotiate for where you're at.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

Later the lines of demarcation became fuzzier. In May, the developers were asked to generate lesson plans for the media components of the modules.

> Betty - God, when I think of those early meetings when he was having fourteen hairies about - "Don't get involved in production!"
>
> Tom - Those were the good old days.
>
> Betty - Yes, weren't they.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - I think the modules remain the same, but we have got to go back through the modules and do the revisions
>
> Ted - Yes.
>
> Brad - and specify the media, some media.

Mary - But that's what he kept insisting all along, we should not do. I could kill him. It was a heck of a lot easier to think about it when you're going through it the first time, than it is to think about it now.

. . . .

Mary - Well, I sure wish we'd known that from the beginning, because we've certainly wasted an awful lot of time ( ), you know, being told all along that we were not to concern ourselves with production. That's the one thing that's been made very specific.

. . . .

Brad - You see, he's assuming that a lot of this is going to be scripted, and that wasn't our desire.

Ted - That's a different ball game when you're writing scripts. I have no experience with scripts.

Tom - Well, these aren't scripts. If you look at them you'll see that they aren't scripts.

Ted - Yeah, but it's a whole different thing. I mean, it's a production thing.

Betty - I think we're all quite content not to get involved in the production. I don't think we saw ourselves as doing that. The development yeah, ... It was up to, I thought, up to ACCESS.

. . . .

Mary - He was saying, "It's none of your business how we design it."

Ted - "None of your business how we design it." But now, I don't know how you feel about it, but I would feel uncomfortable writing a script for t.v. I mean, I'm, that's not my, I haven't any expertise in that line.

. . . .

Betty - Do you think he's now realizing that what he said five months ago doesn't hold true - that he can't look after one section of it without needing us? Is he realizing now that he can't?

Ted - No, I personally . . .

Betty - He should have realized it five months ago.

> Tom - I don't think there's - the only thing I can think of that's changed is that his boss has said to him - if we're going to pay them this much money,
>
> Susan - Make them do more work.
>
> Tom - extract two pounds of flesh. That's the way I read it. But I don't know.
>
> . . . .
>
> Mary - But to me it looks like all the ground rules have shifted since we started this and that makes me very uncomfortable.
>
> (June 3, 1980)

While they had grumbled at ACCESS's earlier admonitions to stay out of production, there was a certain security involved in knowing the limits of one's obligations.

At this point, the developers were beginning to feel uneasy in the face of what appeared to be an insidious mushrooming of the expectations for their role. It seemed that their responsibilities were beginning to include not only what they perceived to be development, but some aspects of production as well.

> Ted - I don't know but I see no end, in a sense I do see no end to it, because the next thing they're going to say is "Yes, fine, now, you'd better come along while we're filming it, and tell the production guys what to do with their fingers," and then the pilotting thing, and then editting, and you know, it just becomes mind boggling.
>
> (June 3, 1980)

By August, the developers were still assuming that ACCESS would take some responsibility for the presentation of the print materials, although doubts were beginning to surface.

Brad - You know, I looked at some of that Values stuff and they have neat little things, where there's a list of items and teachers went down and they have some sticky gum paper and they pulled off the ones that they thought were right. It's gimmicky. But at least they aren't sitting there filling out a workbook. It's that kind of assistance I think we need to . . .

Tom - What do you mean, you hoped Smith would come along?

Brad - Well, he kept jumping on it and saying, "Write it and don't talk about it technically. We'll look after the technical part of it."

Ted - He hasn't done anything technical yet.

Brad - Well, no!

Ted - Eight months for that.

Brad - And he seems to define their role much more narrowly than I thought it was to . . .

. . . .

Susan - And he can help with another one that's not there, don't you think? Making activities less tedious, or however you want to say that.

Ted - Presenting them in a more attractive way.

Betty - The one that Brad called, "Clarifying directions." Maybe we could zip that up a bit. You know, pep it up with, "Do this, do that, swing off the chandelier."

(Aug. 27, 1980)

A concern with regard to pilotting that was prevalent throughout the project was that the pilot versions of the modules did not accurately represent the modules as they would appear when actually in use. Therefore, it seemed that the pilot data being received was not as accurate as it should be. ACCESS responded to this concern of the developers and went into a classroom and filmed an Opener for use during the pilotting of this particular module.

Tom - Because it becomes obvious that ACCESS figures they've done their bit. They got the film for us. Now we can figure out what to do.

Betty - I think they're copping out, between you, me and the doorpost.

Tom - Yes, that's sort of my perception too. I told Sheridan that and I told Martin that and they both said, "Oh."

Betty - Just, "Oh"?

(Oct. 6, 1980)

By November the developers were making conscious efforts to limit their role to the contractual obligations.

Tom - I guess the thing I'm trying to find out is, once we take these six over to ACCESS Monday, what is our future involvement?

Brad - Okay, the role we carved out for ourselves was minimal.

Tom - Like what?

Brad - Like, if we haven't made it clear what we wanted, then they should be able to come and ask us.

Tom - Clarification.

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - Because in our contract it says, "Consultation during production."

. . . .

Ted - That's what we want, to keep it consulting. They were very much wanting us to have meetings every Tuesday, every two weeks.

Brad - Bring Hugh in.

Ted - Bring Hugh in.

Brad - And sit down and go through

Ted - We'd all go through it.

Brad - this word by word. I'm not ready for that. I don't know about you. I think we need somebody from ACCESS, with some knowledge of production, to sit down and read them, look at them, and come back to us with some questions.

Tom - Clarification. So our role is clarification. See, that's far different. We once suggested that our role be lining up some classrooms and teachers that we thought were strong, getting them to teach a unit, and helping plan that unit so that they would be exemplary lessons, showing Openers, Organizing Data, the whole schmear. Now, what I hear you saying is that we will have nothing to do with the identification of teachers . . .

Brad - No, I didn't say that. I just said that we weren't going to go down and go through like we did with the ad hoc committee with another committee, and go through these things another five times, another five revisions, to satisfy the production people. I just - I don't know about you but I'm not ready for that.

Tom - No, I don't see that either, but the production role - it seems to me now that the question is not the content of the modules.

Brad - Well, I don't think they're at that.

Ted - No, I think they still see that as part of their role.

Brad - They see production as being able to influence that - to be able to say to you, "That's not - can't be there."

Ted - That's the way in which they . . .

Tom - Then what in the world have we been doing playing games with this ad hoc committee!?

Brad - Well, you see, I see . . . . So we've got the content in place. Now they'll tell us how

Ted - How to go about it.

Brad - how much more should be there and . . .

Ted - See, now, I think ACCESS was trying to come to that and I think the Department of Ed. was trying to come to that yesterday.

Betty - Is this all stemming from Dave Phillips' point that this should have taken a lot longer than a year to do?

Brad - Ummm.

Betty - Is he trying to draw it out to three?

Brad - It's wrapped up with ACCESS. Dave is part of it. There are two things going on at the same time. Like Bill said, at any time, if we had wanted technical help, it was available.

Ted - And, of course, we made the point that when we got it it was totally useless. Then we had to hear this business about well, they were only rushes - bullrushes.

Brad - So we backed off as far as we could.

Ted - Our names are going to go on this however it turns out.

Brad - Right, I'm sure we're going to be involved. Let's give them six and get some reaction to it before they start planning seventeen different meetings once a week.

. . . .

Ted - Well, I guess I'm ready to say, "That PERT Chart looks good to me. Let's get some timelines in place so that we're not talking about dragging this thing out for another three, four years getting these crazy things produced."

. . . .

Tom - Are we going to go through that again? Spelling out all those objectives of the Development Document that meets the formal requirements rather than having stuff that's been approved by the ad hoc committee and that's ready to produce?

Brad - Well, I'm not.

Tom - I'm not either. I can't see playing that game just to satisfy some peculiar penalty view of

Brad - Me either.

Tom - Smith.

(Nov. 14, 1980)

It is clear from the November 21st meeting, that the developers were still unsure about their role and that of ACCESS with regard to the print materials.

> Tom - Could I clarify something that I thought we had agreed to? Things like this adding a line on top of Step One
>
> Bill - Um hm.
>
> Tom - to provide a little easier introduction into it. But, those kinds of things will, your staff can
>
> Bill - Um hm.
>
> Tom - deal with without necessarily feeling that we have to write out the words.
>
> Bill - I'm not gonna, I'm not gonna come back to you and ask you to uh,
>
> Brad - Write a sentence.
>
> Bill - uh, rewrite every line or change this, uh, uh, find the missing comma or . . .
>
> Tom - Okay.
>
> Ted - So you guys are gonna do it.
>
> Bill - Yeah.
>
> . . . .
>
> Betty - It could change the whole philosophy.
>
> Bill - Right. If there's something that we can't figure out, or we are unsure about what the sequence is, or any of those kinds of things, we'll have to come back.
>
> Tom - Oh, sure, by all means.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - I'm still, I'm still curious as to what's going on.
>
> Bill - Yeah.

Brad - I thought that when we gave this to you, to ACCESS, what we'd get back from you would be an indication. You told us we weren't to specify the kind of media.

Bill - Yeah.

Brad - That you would have someone read that and come back to us and say, "We think you should show these demonstrations

Bill - Yes.

Brad - using this." And then along with that you would produce, come back and say, "Given your description, we need answers to these kinds of questions."

Bill - Yes.

Brad - I thought that's what we would be doing today.

Bill - Yes, and that's why I would like to have as many of the modules as I can get now, and the rest of them as quickly as possible so that we can do precisely that.

. . . .

Bill - Wait a minute. Let's remember one thing. We're all ACCESS, eh? Go away, Alberta Education (said in a joking manner to the Alta. Ed. representative who was present).

(Nov. 21, 1980)

This is another example of the confusion in roles, as the developers certainly did not consider themselves to be part of ACCESS. Mr. Smith was probably referring here to the fact that the developers were contracted to ACCESS.

The dilemma rages on.

Ted - Because in a way, not that I'm opposed to us going into classrooms and filming, you know, but it seems to me it's another dilemma that we can get ourselves into, where they keep wanting more of it. You know, that's the way this project seems to have gone, like uh, you know, we tacked Appendix A on just as a sort of an afterthought, you know, it just got

> stuck onto Openers because we, we found out where all the Openers were. But the expectation became that we would do that. And then once they got that expectation, then one of the expectations was that we would then develop another Appendix, Appendix B of other resources that might be useful. So it seems that if we get into that business of being on film a great deal, well, maybe we're the subjects that they would film for their demos. And I don't know whether we want to go that far or not. Maybe it's a scenario that really I shouldn't be thinking of. But it seems to me that we always go the extra mile. I'm not opposed to it, but it . . .
>
> Brad - I'd still like us to go over there and try it with those kids just because we've got the
>
> Ted - Equipment.
>
> Brad - Yes.
>
> (Jan. 22, 1981)

On Feb. 11th the developers held a short meeting before a second meeting which was held with two ACCESS representatives. The meeting with ACCESS was for the purpose of helping to generate some ideas as to ways of making the print materials more appealing.

> Tom - ( ) any of us who were available could brainstorm ( ). It just burned me up because the role definitions here are getting pretty strange.
>
> . . . .
>
> Tom - But, anyway, it sounds to me like he's depending on us to be the idea generators and hoping that we can use a couple of hours this morning to go through some of the modules, and I guess look particularly at Step One and Two, and see what sorts of things can be done to provide some variation, novelty, adding some interest, writing some different forms of activity than small group discussion, writing down your answers.
>
> Brad - What happened to that - they were going to rewrite all of this material?

Tom - (Laughter) You dream, young Bradley!

Ted - Yeah, but that was the idea in November. They were gonna look over these materials. They were going to have an editor or edit the stuff. That was four months ago.

Tom - Four months ago is not today. El cheapo! - is what they've become it seems to me. Minimal investment is how they'll do it. That's the way it sounded to me on the phone.

. . . .

Ted - You know, I hate to, it sounds like I'm laying blame on people, or on ACCESS in particular, . . . We went out and we shot the stuff on Resolving the Issue. Um, what we really needed was more of that sort of stuff and I don't know as it's the responsibility of the development team to be doing that.

. . . .

Susan - Maybe we should, before February 27th, make whatever adjustments we're going to make on the basis of this feedback from these pilots, take the time to go through every single module, proof-read them, and look for consistency and so on, and then just say, "Okay, we've done everything we're going to do. We've gone through every single module. We've responded to the feedback. Here it is." Otherwise, if we don't have something finished to take the 27th, then it's going to continue to go on and on forever. Because then they're going to give us more feedback at the meeting.

. . . .

Ted - Deadlines - they've got so as they're almost meaningless.

. . . .

Tom - January 1st meant something.

Brad - What?! What did November, when we went roaring in the car across to ACCESS with those damn modules under our arm? What did that mean? They had to have them that minute if they were going to read them. And we sat in that meeting over there and those guys talked about the, putting two guys on it right away.

. . . .

Tom - Generating plans for those videotape demonstrations. Those were provided to them and they accepted them and that's done. It seems to me that if we can hand something to them by March 1st, that they are reasonably content with, that that also will end, and I guess I am getting to the point where I'd be sort of happy to feel that there was a piece of this thing that was ended . . .

Brad - That's the point.

Tom - Okay, and I guess what Susan is saying seems reasonable to me too, that, prior to March 1st, go through the feedback stuff, we try and identify things that seem reasonable to modify, incorporate those modification in it, proof-read the stuff, send it over to them, and say, "Folks, that is it. If you want more done, you do it." That sounds good to me. I can see two weeks away, being, having this behind me.

Brad - Well, I wish I was as optimistic.

Susan - Yeah, it's hard to be.

Brad - It really is.

Susan - We've said this before, haven't we - that it's going to be all over by Christmas, or it's going to be all over by such and such.

. . . .

Brad - . . . the end of the month will come and Dave will be back with six more requests and ACCESS will have done four things less than they said they would do and we'll be right back.

. . . .

Brad - I'm telling you. I'm really finished with it. I think that we've been run around and kicked and put off, and everybody talks about doing work and, uh, you know who ends up doing it. Not them! ACCESS in particular. And if Bill Smith is here this morning I think we should very gently tell him that.

Tom - I can hardly wait.

Susan - Does it have to be gentle?

. . . .

> Betty - Well, the people who are in charge of this project don't give a damn, like the Dept. of Education and ACCESS-Television. We're running around like chickens with our heads cut off, doing all this stuff in our time, and who cares?
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - I think they, you know, the problem I'm having is we keep doing, we keep going the extra yard.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - We went out and filmed Resolving the Issue.
>
> Betty - Not to mention that stuff with Judy. We were there.
>
> Ted - But, you see, ACCESS should be doing that.
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - This, it seems to have become like Topsy. It keeps growing and growing and growing and it doesn't look like any end's in sight. I wouldn't mine if Topsy ended up by looking like Brooke Shields, but she's beginning to look like a monster.
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

In the second meeting of the morning the developers reiterated their expectation that ACCESS would undertake the task of presenting the activities described in print, in a variety of interesting and creative ways.

> Tom - That's one of the things that we had, all along an expectation that ACCESS's role was going to be, was a contribution of some creativity to these things - to look at Step One activities and say, "Gee, this is exactly like Step One in the previous one. Can't we add a little pizazz by . . .?" That, I guess, is what we had anticipated would be done, and then, that this period of time now would be when the ACCESS people could bring their brilliant ability to generate creative ideas to bear on these modules, and invest some originality, add some variety and sparkle.

Bill - Well, gee, uh, that's pretty tall, uh, uh, anyway ( ).

Tom - Well, that's what ACCESS is all about. Gee, we've written up the modules. Is that the end of it? ACCESS's role is simply to put the damn things ( ).

Bill - That's sort of, that's sort of the mandate that we have from Alberta Education. Any time we've tried to, uh, well, one of the major criticisms that our political leaders, uh, uh, level at us is that we're too "Hollywood" - that we put too much, um, uh, gold-plate on the armour plating of it.

. . . .

Tom - I guess I was sort of wondering how you see your role in the print material.

Karen - I have no role at all with the print material.

Bill - No.

Tom - Who does? (Exasperation in voice)

Bill - I do. I get it pushed through our Information Services part, area, to get it designed and printed up. That, you don't you're unhappy with that, Tom, in what?

Tom - Not unhappy that you're the person who's associated with it at all. But what, I sort of get the feeling that there's no ACCESS commitment to try and, to have some impact on the quality of print material, and that bothers me. That was not my understanding ever, from the very beginning of this thing. And I saw the relationship between developers and ACCESS as being we generate ideas

Bill - Um hm.

Tom - and develop some content or materials, and then ACCESS takes those ideas and content and translates them into materials that will be attractive to teachers and interesting, have some creative elements in the design. We've never seen ourselves - and I guess I can honestly say - we never saw ourselves as being overly emphasizing the creative ingredients

Bill - Um.

Tom - in the design of these things. We think there's some pretty good content there, but

Bill - Right.

Tom - in terms of presentation, um, we haven't really directed a great deal of our efforts in . . .

(Feb. 11, 1981)

For the first time on tape, the representative from ACCESS clearly outlined its position with regard to this issue.

Bill - Um, okay, I see. I-I-I get what you're getting at and it could be possible for - okay. We, uh, what we have available, what we have available is the, um, services of our Design and Art Graphics Department. Uh, we also have, uh, our Editor, but that editting is primarily to make sure that all the dot, the t's are dotted and the i's are crossed, well, whatever. And that we don't have, uh, any additional writing, uh, new copy of new written information available. That, uh, that fact is part of our, um, expectations of the developers, that we're getting uh, the material, uh, from the developers, would be sanctioned, uh, from Alberta Education, that that's the copy that's wanted. Then our designers are - our Editor will ensure that the words are grammatically correct, etc., etc. The designer will work on the, um, overall out - format, outline, typeset, layout, of the print materials. Uh, some of these things are going to be possible to be added in there, but if we're being asked to write new copy for this Step One, that's not going to be possible.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

The developers' discouragement is evident in this February 15th meeting.

Tom - Well, what are we doing today? We're going to go through these things and try to build some of this stuff in?

Susan - No, that's Bill Smith's part, isn't it?

Tom - You must not have heard his response when I asked him what he saw happening next, now that we had this list on the board. And you didn't hear what he said?

. . . .

Tom - Well, now you guys better take these ideas and try and incorporate them into Step One. And then when they come over to us, why we'll, we'll try and make it look attractive.

. . . .

Ted - You see, the first question, like the clarify of directions, you know, a good editor could tidy that up.

Tom - We aren't going to get any good editting outside this room. If you think that Bill Smith is going to edit, why you're telling him to do something he has no intention of doing. I think he made that clear.

Betty - He sees his role simply as producing this, doesn't he? That was the distinct impression I got last week.

Tom - Paying the bill. That's their main task - pick up the tab.

Ted - We've gone this one so many times, haven't we?

. . . .

Tom - I suppose that's one of the things that I'd sort of hoped that ACCESS would contribute to this - dress it up a little bit and help to make it more palatable, more visually appealing and interesting. And that's one of the things on our list over there to do.

. . . .

Brad - Now he's starting to be creative.

Betty - Why are we worrying about this? He was supposed to be doing all the creative thinking.

Ted - He's done a lot. He did a hell of a lot.

Betty - Who, Bill?

Ted - Bill.

Betty - Bill Smith?

Ted - Sure, he did.

Betty - What did he do?

Ted - He was creative enough to make us do it.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Upon seeing two women shouting at each other across a narrow street, from the windows of their homes, Sydney Smith, the eighteenth-century English essayist, is said to have commented, "These women will never agree; they are arguing from different premises." This comment perhaps best sums up the relationship between the developers and ACCESS.

The developers began with the idea that their role was to primarily involve generation of the print materials. They would also make suggestions to ACCESS regarding the content of the media examples. ACCESS was responsible for the production of the media examples and the design, editting, and printing of the print materials.

In the end, the developers wrote, pilotted, revised, and editted the print materials. They wrote, filmed, and editted demonstration lessons to be used in pilot sessions. They wrote lesson plans for the final media components and consulted during production. ACCESS produced the media examples and did some editting and revision of the print materials.

Part of the confusion over what tasks were a part of the developers' responsibility stemmed from the fact that two separate short-term contracts were involved, rather than one contract for the entire project. The second contract was not signed until June 24th, 1980. The first contract did not mention any responsibility with regard to the media component of the program. Consequently, when it became clear, in May, that ACCESS had this expectation, it came as somewhat of a surprise.

Also, the developers were under the impression, for many months, that ACCESS would vary the presentation of the activities so that they would not all involve pencil and paper. When they saw that this was not going to happen, their disappointment was great.

Furthermore, the developers were concerned about the quality of the modules which they had to pilot. It was their opinion that the media component should have been a part of the pilot modules, in order to give them a fair test. ACCESS was willing only to generate one media example for pilot purposes, so the developers readied others themselves. This involved a great deal of work and was a source of some resentment.

An issue which was readily resolved was concerned with whether or not to have each teacher choose between two modules dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to his or her preferred teaching style (teacher-directed or teacher-student shared decision-making) or to have aspects of each teaching style in one module.

The Mentor Proposal had outlined the first alternative described above. However, by April, the modules thus far developed had used the second alternative.

The discussion in this meeting (April 11, 1980) makes evident that this decision was at first implicit. The change from two modules to one for each skill seemed to occur without thought. The decision only became explicit as it was debated during this meeting.

The transcript excerpt begins with a reference to a thesis proposal written by one of the developers. The thesis was to be concerned with the Mentor Project.

> Tom - There's one more decision that, as I read through Susan's proposal, I guess, was nagging me a bit, and that is the business about - we started out with a rationale that emphasized giving teachers some decision-making ~~role~~ in this, and part of it was based on setting up a self-awareness activity that would try to help them reflect on the extent to which they seem to be a teacher-directive role or a shared teacher-student decision-making role. Out of that, I thought the original conception of this thing was that that should provide a basis for the teacher, then, making some decisions for herself about what materials she wanted to use . . . . We seem to be planning modules which are not reflecting that teacher choice initially about what pattern she wants to look at; but are saying, "Here, look at both," anytime that you pick up one of those modules and you go through it.
>
> Susan - It's interesting that you bring that up. When Isabel asked me at the proposal presentation how it was organized, I said how we had originally intended - that we were going to have separate modules for each type
>
> Tom - I heard you.
>
> Susan - and all this and then I started to think - well, really, that's not what we're doing, but oh well, I won't go into that here.
>
> Mary - Well, this came out of the first, this change in direction, came out of developing the Opener, wasn't it? We found it very, very difficult to try to identify ways of developing Openers without an

actual situation right there in front of us. That was part of the problem. We kept saying, "It's very, very difficult for us to think of how you could develop a module without having a group of children there."

Tom - Yes.

Mary - Okay. So I guess that decision was made that it would - it would probably be easier to get the continuum of experience within the same module, which seems to me what we've been doing in the four modules that we've developed to this point. Now, that raises a question, though, or a point, and that is perhaps at the end of each module we might ask the teachers to reflect on what, which of these they felt most comfortable with, or which one they felt they might use, or to turn it back on them in some way.

Tom - So I think you, in yours you had them plan one of each.

Mary - Yeah.

Tom - And then what you're saying makes sense - look at what we've got planned - which would you be most comfortable using with your students? I like that.

Mary - Well, that's another part of what the module might do, then, kind of, Tom, it would, the format of the module might then have a final section which had teachers address themselves to - how can teachers operate in organizing data, analyzing data - which way is most appropriate for you? Do you know why you think that? Do you know why you feel that way?

Mary - As long as it's there at some point, that they are reflecting on this continuum. So instead of having separate modules, one that looks at this from the point of view of teacher presenter and another that looks at shared decision-making, we have one module, and that part of the process is to be sure to look at the fact that people operate in different ways or different positions.

(April 11, 1980)

In the end, the reflection on the fact that teachers operate in different ways in the classroom, was built primarily into Step Four, which involved viewing and analyzing two classroom demonstrations. The demonstrations were analyzed in terms of the role of the teacher and that of the students. Participants were asked to mark on a continuum where they considered each demonstration to fall.

A sixth major issue was concerned with where to obtain the content for the classroom experiences to be shown on videotape. The decision that the content was to be taken from the Kanata Kits or Teaching Units (materials developed by Alberta Education) was made by the ad hoc advisory committee or by Alberta Education unilaterally, and the developers were informed of the verdict. The developers never presented a strong case against this, however much they grumbled among themselves. (Also see Nihilism section.)

> Brad - I looked at one of the Taba ones the other day. I looked at last night's . . .
>
> Tom - Oh, geez.
>
> Brad - Hm?
>
> Tom - I used one of the Taba examples in Synthesizing Data or one of those and they clobbered me over the head with it.
>
> Brad - Why?
>
> Tom - It was not out of a Kanata Kit or Teaching Unit.
>
> . . . .
>
> Betty - So, if we're going to videotape a classroom, it has to be something out of a Kanata Kit or a Teaching Unit.
>
> Tom - Hopefully.
>
> Betty - I understood it had to be.
>
> Tom - Bill was going to find a class that was using a Teaching Unit or Kanata Kit and he would go in and

> Ted - And say, "Now we want you to be a teacher-director."
>
> Tom - film the, film the data gathering activity or other bits and pieces.
>
> (Aug. 27, 1980)

These, then, were the major issues dealt with by the developers. They were at the heart of the decision-making process involved in the development of the Mentor Project. Most of them were not easily resolved. Several only reached resolution after the passage of a great deal of time. For instance, the issue concerning the role of a leader persisted for about fourteen months, almost the entire development period.

The decisions based on these issue became part of what Walker calls the "explicit" design of the program. That is, the decisions were made with forethought and after a consideration of alternatives. There is another design as well, the "implicit" design, which is based on decisions which have been made automatically, without consideration of alternatives. The number of implicit decisions is endless. One example, in the Mentor Project, would be the decision to make the modules uniform in format. The developers engaged in no lengthy weighing of alternatives with regard to this decision. It simply seemed to happen. The first module was developed around a particular format, and the others followed.

Organization

Organization, as the name suggests, is an episode concerned with organizational matters, those tasks devoted to keeping things running smoothly.

The following example of an organization segment is taken from the first part of a meeting, as a newly written module is handed out to members of the committee for their reactions.

> Tom - Do you guys want to put those three sheets you've just received in this module where they're supposed to go?
>
> Betty - Oh, right.
>
> Tom - No, no, they're not the last three. That would make it too easy.
>
> Betty - Oh.
>
> Tom - What does one of them say - Openers?
>
> Betty - Openers Found in Both the Teaching Units.
>
> Tom - That's page 14. Openers, page 14, goes right towards the end. What's another one?
>
> Betty - Looks as if there was a three on the other page because this one says Number 4.
>
> Susan - I didn't get that one.
>
> Tom - What, this?
>
> Susan - Yeah.
>
> Tom - There's one that has a blank.
>
> Hugh (Visitor) - Here's Susan's copy. I probably have Susan's copy.
>
> Tom - We need five copies.
>
> Hugh - Well, there's six people though. Okay, so give Susan that.
>
> Tom - I've got my original too. That makes six.

Susan - Here, this is it.

Tom - This page then, that has three blanks at the top and "Openers

Brad - Yes?

Tom - should gain the attention and interest of students" - that's Page 8. I - you - go from Page 14 that you put in and move backwards.

Brad - There's an 8 here.

Betty - There's an 8 here already, but it's not right?

Tom - I guess not. This is the one that comes right before 9. (Laughter)

Betty - Gee, that's nice.

Tom - Well, I'm sorry. She didn't have time to get this done.

Betty - I'm just kidding.

Brad - The more you hassle him, the less time you're going to have to hassle me.

Tom - Alright. Did you find it? There

Betty - No, eight.

Tom - Find nine. It goes before nine.

Betty - Oh, oh, oh, this nine. The old nine.

Tom - Okay?

Betty - And this one goes . . .

Tom - I have just one more page. Lord knows where it goes.

(July 28, 1980)

Presentation

Another type of episode, not included by Walker, will be called a presentation. This was a common episode over the course of the Mentor Project. It involved the presentation of a module, or a piece of a module, to the rest of the committee, by the individual, or subgroup, who had worked on it. It involved not only the actual presentation but questions and comments and the responses to them.

This excerpt involves a report on a revision of the Historical Documents module.

> Susan - Also, if they're going to take them away to use in their own class, they would want to know who they are. So then we're going to - the idea is that - one of the sources of information for the cards was biographies, and, what, going back to what historical documents might biographers have used - that's just an opening activity. Part Two puts it into the inquiry process. And Part Three - going back to the objectives - the idea is to demonstrate that as history is passed down, it can become modified. And they're going to take part in that game, you know, where they sit in the circle and the message goes around the circle, and the first individual writes it down. Okay, "What happened to the final message?" And, hopefully, they will draw a relationship between historical messages and the game. Then, that next thing, I took out of an article by Ian Wright, in "Horizon."
>
> Tom - Where are you?
>
> Susan - I'm going onto the next one. So that builds with the next objective - 3b - "To demonstrate the differences between primary and secondary sources." Now, I don't think - this was printed in a newspaper, but, you know, it's not the satire. I just put that in. ( ) You can comment on that. The newspaper articles are the same as they were. I tried to get some other ones yesterday. I got the "Globe and Mail" and a bunch of things, but there really wasn't anything. But today, because of the meeting, today there might be some good articles tonight, I'm hoping. These are alright, but I don't think they show the difference that clearly. That's to demonstrate that and then the newspaper articles are to demonstrate that 3c - that there are various interpretations of what ( ). When you look at the three articles, and then look at the differences in the way in which the situation is reported, and then, if ten years from now, someone who wished to find out about the event, read Article three, how would that person's perspective on the event, differ from someone who read two, and what are some reasons for these differences?

Brad - ( ) Maybe again. If you follow "Alberta Report" see how they treat it. "Edmonton Sun" and "The Journal" - there should be three.

Susan - Well, I bought the "Globe and Mail," the "Sun," "The Journal," . . . (End of side on tape recorder) But, you know, I don't really want to comment, do I? I want a report that's supposed to be objective, to show that even supposedly objective reports can differ, because a columnist, now if I could go that route, would be fairly easy. But it seems to me that probably is not appropriate. Okay, and then the next one - the objective, was to demonstrate that historical accounts may contain important omissions.

Mary - Susan, just to back up a minute. I don't know if that's right, whether, whether, you have to just take the

Susan - So-called objective?

Mary - So-called objective. You just want to show that an event which is supposedly an objective event can be seen differently from different points of view. So maybe you don't need, maybe it doesn't need to be just the newspaper.

Susan - Or just an article. It could be a columnist.

Mary - Yeah, if that will show the different, the difference in perspectives in interpretation.

Susan - Well, what do you think? I do want to show that even though the so-called - we're supposedly given a firsthand account of an event, you know, as an observer, a direct observer, even that, certain biases come into it. Whereas a columnist, that's supposed to be biased. He's expressing his biases.

Mary - Okay. But I'm saying that even, you know, like if you can't get that, then maybe you could just take ( ) because, in a sense they are still first-hand accounts of an event.

(July 31, 1980)

Update

A third type of episode found in the Mentor tapes will be called update. The update involved a reminder, by one or more members, to the others, of what had been accomplished to date, and sometimes, a listing of what had yet to be done.

During this discussion, (May 13, 1980) the following chart was being put on the blackboard in the meeting room.

Done	To Revise	To Draft
Map Reading - B & S	Part 1 - Brad	Historical Documents - B & S
Surveying - B & S	Openers - TF	Interviewing - S & B
	Analyzing - TF	Valuing - M & B
	Synthesizing - M & T	Evaluating - T & B
	Applying - T & T	Deciding - M & B
	Evaluating - T & B	
	Organizing - M & T	

Tom - What I was going to try to do was just to jot down where we are. We've got - I believe the way things are now is that the Map Reading and the Surveying are pretty well accepted as they stood. We didn't get any feedback saying, "You must make these kinds of changes." So, while we may want to do some polishing, I don't think that we have direction from the committee that we must. Then we have revisions to make on that first one - what did we wind up calling that - the very first piece where we lay out the different teacher roles and ( )?

Mary - Didn't we call that Part One?

Tom - Part One and Openers. What's the next one after Openers? Data Gathering.

. . . .

Tom - Synthesizing.

Susan - There is a typed copy.

Tom - It's pretty well finished, is it?

Susan - Yes, but it doesn't specify the videotapes.

Tom - It's never been presented to that committee.

Susan - No.

> Betty - When you say, "Evaluating," in the "To Draft" column, you mean more modules? They want it expanded to more modules?
>
> Tom - Well, they - they want us to come back to them with more. Now, I don't think that they've necessarily said that it had to be in separate modules.
>
> Betty - But expanded that module.
>
> Tom - But there's got to be something more drafted on Evaluation than we have carried to them; and they're not talking about just a revision. They're talking about a marked - additional content being planned for that section.
>
> . . . .
>
> Tom - Because in terms of how much time it takes to go through that module, it's a reasonable piece. But they want more and they made that very clear. So, in terms of, I guess of people going to do some of these tasks - Brad is going to work on this one.
>
> Mary - So the decision now is whether the valuing and the social action go as one module?
>
> Tom - No, we've got the Applying module that Bryan and I worked on - which is the social action piece, and we're obligated to produce a module that focuses on valuing. And I guess we're obligated to produce something on deciding.
>
> (May 13, 1980)

Invention

Another type of episode will be called invention. This involved the actual production of materials.

Walker distinguishes between production and discussion, turning his attention to discussion. The modus operandi of the Kettering Project, which he studied, was such that committee members would produce lessons individually or in small groups and then bring them to the meetings for discussion. Mentor operated in much the same manner, in that most of the actual production of materials was carried on outside of meetings. However, first drafts of materials were often developed in the meetings so that everyone could reach agreement on the format that would be followed for other materials. Also, some revision work was carried out during meeting time.

This excerpt involves the production of a new section of the Openers module.

> Betty - Okay, well, what I'm going to do for the purposes of now is leave a few lines there. "What issues might this film raise?"
>
> Brad - Do you want to give them an example?
>
> Ted - Sure - e.g.
>
> Betty - E.G.
>
> Brad - Let's put that in a format. "Should" - something. I wish I could remember more about the film.
>
> Tom - "Should nations resort to war to solve - to resolve - issues?"
>
> Brad - That would be the easiest one. We can come up with one that's different than the easiest one.
>
> Betty - I'm trying to remember what the film was all about. Should . . .
>
> Tom - The guy and his neighbour squabbling over - to start off, at least.
>
> Betty - Starts off with two guys scrabbling over whose property is the flower on.
>
> Ted - "Should neighbours resolve differences by violence?" - or something. I don't know if that's one of the things we've alluded to before. Maybe that's too much like the one about war.

Betty - Maybe . . .

Brad - And what are you going to ask them? And, so instead of asking them to generate the questions, um . . .

Betty - We're asking them to isolate an issue, one issue. I think the next question will be, um, uh . . .

Ted - Well, what research questions?

Betty - Well, we've said "issues." We've got a lot of issues. We're hoping they might generate a few issues.

Ted - Okay. "Select one issue."

Betty - "Select."

Ted - "Develop." And "create." That might be better than "develop."

Betty - I'm going to word this e.g. thing, "Should neighbours solve conflict by quarrelling?" or what would be a better word? "Should neighbours solve conflict by violence?"

Ted - Yeah, for the moment.

Betty - "Violence," for the moment, okay. "Select one issue and

Tom - "List some of the things you need to find out."

Brad - "to resolve the issue."

Betty - "List some questions" - "things"?

Tom - "things you need to find out."

Betty - "Some things you would," - I'd rather use information - "you would need"

Brad - "to help resolve the issue."

Betty - "in order to help resolve the issue." Okay? That was . . . Any more questions on this bit?

Tom - Give them some blanks headed by the title . . .

Brad - "Research Questions."

Betty - Oh, you mean where it says, "Select one issue and list some of the things you would need to help resolve the issue"? That bit?

. . . .

Tom - Well, in that film there, in this Opener, what are the alternative positions?

Betty - Well, I don't remember the details of the film, but I do remember . . .

Tom - It shows the two guys squabbling over a flower and they wind up knocking the tar out of each other.

Betty - Yeah, because they have opposing views on what should be done about it.

Susan - Maybe it shows the difference of competing positions on resorting to violence versus resorting to other means to solve conflict.

Betty - They each try to solve the problem in different ways.

Susan - Do they? Or do they both just resort to violence?

Betty - I can't remember.

Tom - They begin knocking the tar out . . .

Ted - Okay, well, if you go through it and the first one I can see that one . . . to feel concern as to the solution of the problems, some emotional response. You won't have too much trouble with that one.

. . . .

Betty - But you're remembering different than me, Tom. I think they do different things at first in trying to resolve the problem. I seem to remember them running in and out of the house doing different things and finally, they get into punching each other and then the house gets destroyed, the fence gets destroyed, and the flower dies. But other things that go on, other problem-solving things that go on before that, like one tries this thing, and the other trying that. I don't rember what they tried, but don't they do that? Or am I remembering it wrongly?

Tom - I don't remember that, but it's been too long since I've seen it to remember the details.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Plausibility Structures

A large proportion of the Mentor data was suitable for categorization into deliberative episodes. However, there was a social aspect to portions of the transcripts which seemed to transcend these categories. The concept of "plausibility structures" (Berger, 1969; Werner, 1977) seemed appropriate to these data. Berger and Werner outline a number of plausibility structures. Three were chosen as appropriate to the Mentor data. These were legitimations, appeals to significant others and nihilism.

Legitimations

Legitimations are explanations "designed to convince people that what they are being told to do is not only the prudent thing, but also the only right and salutary one" (Berger, 1969, p. 44). Legitimations can be used not only to convince others, but to convince oneself. This is the way in which they were used by the Mentor developers.

According to Walker, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice " (1971, p. 55). The developers used these appeals to circumstances to justify or "legitimize" certain outcomes, usually undesirable.

In the case of the pilotting of the Mentor modules, the negative feedback from teachers was legitimized by reference to the following circumstances:

1. The pilot modules did not contain the videotape portion which was to be in the final version.

Brad - Well, I guess, you know, I still have the same concern. We designed those seven or eight steps, whatever we ended up with, with a variety of, uh, techniques in mind - that they would be involved, see some pieces, and we'd work on some pieces, and they'd share with others. And I don't think we've ever really tested that model out.

. . . .

Ted - The difficulty I have with the pilot - it's like, if you can imagine Toyota demonstrating their cars, or field-testing, without the motor. That might not be fair, but I think so. It seems to me that Step Three is such a crucial component.

Brad - When you look at, yeah, and that's - I do too.

Susan - For motivation and understanding.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

2. Very early in the development process, the ad hoc advisory committee had given the developers the direction that the in-service modules were to be able to stand on their own. They were to be self-directing enough that a teacher could take a module and use it independently.

Hand in hand with this direction was the decision that in-service participants would learn by doing. Therefore, rather than having a leader tell them about the inquiry process, they would learn about it by using it themselves.

As a result, the teachers and the developers came to the pilot sessions with widely different expectations as to their respective roles.

The teachers arrived with the expectation, based on previous in-service experiences, that there would be a leader who would direct them through the session, and who would, by implication, take on the responsibility for its success or failure.

The developers came with the expectation that participants would take on a great deal of responsibility for shaping the in-service session. The developers would act as facilitators, rather than leaders. This caused some confusion.

> Betty - They didn't understand that the purpose of this for them was to learn the process of social inquiry. Because the girl, Rita brought up this business of, you know, teachers are being flooded with in-service, a lot of razzle-dazzle, da da da da da, and our stuff was very tame by comparison. And I said, "Well, maybe the intent of it is different. It's not to razzle-dazzle you or to teach you a new, you know, a Language Arts program, or something like that. It's to teach you a process that you will need to know in order to teach it to your students." So she said, "Oh, I wish that someone had told us that before. That makes sense."
>
> . . . .
>
> Betty - We explained that the modules were supposed to be as self-directed as possible because the ad hoc Committee were (sic) considering every possible use that could be made of them in the province. And that they couldn't depend on a leader. Nobody'd told them that before. They were depending - we saw that right at the beginning, didn't we - they were looking to us all the time for leadership. "What do we do now? What do we do next?"
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)

3. Teachers brought a negative attitude toward social studies to the pilot sessions.

> Brad - A lot of it depends on the conditions - a whole bunch depends on the conditions under which the workshop is held.
>
> Bill - Um hm.
>
> Brad - The people there were . . .
>
> Tom - The frame of mind that they come there

Bill - Oh yeah.

Tom - has a lot to do with it.

Brad - As soon as they ( ) you may as well pack it up and go home.

. . . .

Betty - We were having a general brainstorming at the end and uh, I asked if I felt that, if they felt that before anybody came to any of these that they should be familiar with the Teaching Units and Kanata Kits at their grade level. Maybe only have read them, if nothing else. And they just went, they just went, "Uhh? You're kidding! Read all of that? Forget it!" So, in other words, we're defeated in that sense if we're going to assume that these people come knowing a topic already, knowing an issue, any of that kind of stuff, because they said flatly, "We're not going to read all that stuff."

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Tom - Part of the dilemma, it seems to me - I'd like to see us have an in-service program that was effective, that would accomplish our goal, and I feel badly about something going out that was gonna be a miserable failure. When after doing a couple, the teachers' attitudes are so negative toward it, that . . .

Ted - But, in a sense, I don't really, I really don't think, I think you have to go beyond their attitudes towards this. I think their whole attitude toward - like the comment that we kept getting was that - you know, "We're being in-serviced to death."

Susan - It wasn't that so much, Ted, I thought, as this whole general attitude. They're negative towards the social studies curriculum, they're negative towards everything that's been going on in this province in social studies for the last few years. They seem to be very negative towards Alberta Ed. and they see this in-service as part and par . . ., like Rita saw this in-service as part and parcel of the whole thing.

Tom - Of course, Alice insists that the staff are typical of the teachers that she goes out to work with.

Susan - Um hm. That could be.

Tom - That, that's the way it is out there. I mean, if you're going to design an in-service program, you better have in mind, the nature of your clientele.

Susan - Um hm.

. . . .

Susan - See, the point - okay, that Grade Five class on the videotape were deciding - Should Canada and the United States become one? Well, that got them off too, because then they started in on the curriculum and its expectations, you know. And so, "How can Grade Fives - I can't even make a decision like that. How can Grade Five students make that decision? So I fin - finally had to say, "Well, let's, we have our doubts and concerns too. Let's try to put that aside for now and just look at the in-service and is it trying to deal with these things? Well, just look at the in-service itself. It's because they're not happy with the curriculum. Of course this is all part and parcel of the same thing, and so, naturally, they have problems with the in-service and everything. It's all part of the same . . .

Tom - Whole attitude.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

4. Pilot teachers had no choice as to the modules in which they would participate. This was unrealistic, since when the program actually came into use, teachers would choose the specific modules in which they would become involved.

Tom - The problem was they didn't choose . . .

Susan - Exactly. The way we had originally set this up, is they would have chosen that. And, obviously, they wouldn't have chosen Surveys in the first place unless they were interested in doing it with their class at some point.

Tom - Right.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

5. Pilot teachers had so many in-service sessions to attend that participation in the pilot sessions was perceived by them to be an undesirable burden.

> Ted - Well, like two of them, who had been at the one that Betty and I went to, they came in, and they said, "We won't be here today. We're sorry, but uh, there's another in-service that we have to attend." Uh, some meeting, some . . .
>
> Betty - I can sympathize to a certain extent.
>
> Ted - And, uh, . . .
>
> Betty - They had a bulletin board up behind us with
>
> Ted - Yeah.
>
> Betty - in-services for the month of February and there were dozens!
>
> Ted - The in-service calendar was not quite that thick. I'd say half that thick though, wouldn't you?
>
> Betty - Um hm.
>
> Ted - That's just for the month of February! Now, that's throughout the whole system. It's true. So it's high school as well as junior high, as well as elementary. But obviously, there must be a tremendous amount of activities going on.
>
> Susan - And . . .
>
> Betty - By the same token, though, I don't think we should be victimized by this, to the extent that, you know, we've been asked to develop this stuff. We've done it in good faith. Even if the teachers don't, you know, out there, don't want to be in-serviced, you know, why should our stuff be punished for it? Because of their attitude towards - I mean, the fact that they're being in-serviced to death is their school system's fault, not ours.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

6. The ad hoc advisory committee had insisted on the use of examples from the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units

in the modules. Teachers did not seem to like these examples.

> Ted - No, but, you see, the other one who wasn't in on the plot said, "Now, have you seen the Kanata Kits, Grade Four and Five?" And we said, "No, we haven't." "Well, they've just arrived. Would you like to look at them?"
>
> Susan - Grade Four.
>
> Ted - And so we went along and she showed them to us. "Now, I'm supposed to use these with my Grade Four kids. And they're average or below-average students. Just get the Student Manual or the Student Booklet out and read it," she says. "There's no way that I can use it with my kids."
>
> . . . .
>
> Ted - It's just like Rita using Grade One. She uses the, the Kanata Kit, but it sits in a box at the back of her room. And she used the rusty example of the audiotapes. And she said that her kids - and she's only got a small class, about eighteen of them - she says they won't sit still for the time they're supposed to listen to those audiotapes. You know, as an adult you wouldn't want to sit still and listen to it for that long. But, see, there are all of these things, which they're bringing with them all the time.
>
> Susan - Yeah.
>
> Ted - See, it was interesting that the few times I've been around where we've ever done any pilotting at all, if ever we've used examples from the Kanata Kit in the first step, they've always rejected them.
>
> Susan - Yep.
>
> Ted - They did that with the Grade Nine one. And they've done it with the Grade Seven one now.
>
> Betty - There they dinged us out for the Grade Seven example that we had in
>
> Ted - Well . . .
>
> Betty - Valuing.

> Ted - Well, we . . .
>
> Susan - That Grade Five one for Resolving the Issue.
>
> Ted - That's the first time though that I've ever sat down and tried to do that Grade Seven one.
>
> Betty - Well, I hadn't tried it before. There was no way we could understand the directions for it, about how to score yourself on a sheet.
>
> Ted - And you could just imagine a Grade Seven kid trying to sort it out.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

7. The pilot groups consisted of teachers from all grade levels. An ideal group would be composed of participants who taught the same grade.

> Betty - You don't see that in one school. There aren't too many schools with three Grade Five classrooms in it. This is Dave's fault, not ours. Heavens to Betsy! An ideal pilotting group would have been a bunch of Grade Ones one day, a bunch of Grade Fives another day, you know, at least it would have got over that hangup. They might have done Step Six quite gladly.
>
> Susan - And also Steps Five and Seven.
>
> Ted - That's the point I was trying to make.
>
> Betty - But we didn't choose them!
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

8. Teachers were sometimes participating in the modules, not through any interest on their part, but because of commitments made by their school administrators.

> Bill - Exactly, and the thing here is that we're, we're overreacting on the basis of forced choice. That all of the people that we've been pilotting with, and have been trying things out with, are people who didn't choose to go into this activity.
>
> Brad - Yeah, they've been pilotted under some of the worst

Bill - Under duress.

Brad - worst conditions.

(Feb. 11, 1981
10:10 - 11:50)

Tom - I'm not sure at all that the enthusiasm comes from the staff as much as it does from Irene's feeling that they need it.

Susan - So they may be resentful about being involved in it in the first place.

Ted - See, now, if she feels that they need it, and they're saying that, "No-one ever asked us what we need."

. . . .

Betty - There's another point though. If a principal of a school decides that this is what the staff of his school or her school is going to be subjected to, (General laughter at the word, "subjected")

Betty - They didn't ask for that. She did. She's the, she's the one that should be going through the process. Not them. That's not democratic.

Ted - You're in great form this morning, Betty.

Betty - Well, heavens, it's so ridiculous, all these factors that we have to compete against. Other people's bloody stupidity! If that principal at Lakeside Elementary is so much of an autocrat that she dictates what her staff is going to do, then she deserves what she gets!

Ted - But we're the ones getting it.

Betty - I know it! And it's not fair! And Alice should not come out under those circumstances if she knows that. It's just making our job doubly hard. Coming out when the staffs don't want to be in-serviced. How charming! Democracy in action!

(Feb. 15, 1981)

9. Some teachers perceived the pilotting as something done merely as a formality, to legitimize the Mentor Program. It really had little significance because it was too late for any major changes to occur anyway.

Susan - And they also seemed to think, they felt that the pilotting is futile because they say that, okay, "Alberta Ed., ACCESS, and so on have invested a certain amount of money in this so far and so much time has been invested in it, we're not going to change the basic format. We might change a few cosmetic things." And she's probably right. The basic format is going to go ahead. So she said, "What's the point?"

(Feb. 15, 1981)

10. The attitude of observers was sometimes considered to be detrimental to the success of pilot sessions.

Betty - I was so annoyed that they came down from Ferndale Public and sat there in front of those teachers and said, "Oh, well, we're just going to have another Downey Report in five years." That's a lovely attitude to have at this point, isn't it? With a new curriculum in place, he's already expecting that we're going to get another Downey report saying, "Send it back." Now this is a damn consultant with the system who's talking this way! And in front of a group of teachers!

Tom - Probably they didn't know what the Downey Report was about.

Betty - No, but he did and he was directing his comment merely at us. But, you know, it still bugged me that he would say that in front of a group of teachers. That he's quietly accepting that the new curriculum is going to bomb. That's a nice positive attitude to have!

. . . .

Betty - That was the point - that guy made a crack at that point in the discussion, that guy from Central Office. I said to him that we had been trying very hard not to be directive to teachers in these modules, you know, do this, do this, do this, and the next thing. And he said, "All you've got now is a subtler form of direction."

Susan - Well, I think we've discussed that between ourselves, haven't we?

Ted - Well, . . .

Betty - But I thought that was not the place to be saying that when we're trying to pilot the stuff

Susan - Yeah.

Betty - with a group of teachers. It didn't create a very good atmosphere in the room.

(Feb. 15, 1981)

The ad hoc advisory committee proved to be a useful source of legitimation. When questioned about any decision, it was very easy to evade responsiblity by reminding one another either that the committee had approved it or that the decision had come from the committee in the first place.

Susan - The thing that, you know what's going to happen is if it turns out people, if it gets bad feedback all along, if it is used, who's going to get all the blame? Everyone else is going to be running off like . . .

Ted - Well, I don't know if they can.

Susan - Well, why? The developers did it, you know.

Ted - The ad hoc committee approved it.

Susan - Yes, but they'll just say, "Well, we were under time constraints."

Ted - Well, let them say what they want. We can turn around and say, "We were under lots of constraints too. We were under the constraints of the Kanata Kits. We were under the constraints of the Teaching Units."

Betty - Changes that the committee wanted made that we didn't approve of, but we made them because they wanted them.

(Feb. 11, 1981)

Betty - There's a point though, if I may interrupt for a sec. There is a point though, that I think Bill alluded to earlier that, that Karen might like to know, and that is - they are commitified, as you said.

Bill - Um hm.

> Betty - The reason the module pattern is so consistent is because the committee wanted it that way. They wanted . . .
>
> (Feb. 11, 1981)
>
> Betty - And, of course, they were holding us, as Susan was saying, they were holding us responsible for those pages out of the Kanata Kit.
>
> Susan - That's right, yeah.
>
> Betty - But we didn't develop it! This was developed by somebody else.
>
> Susan - We were responsible for the whole curriculum.
>
> Betty - We had to use them in these modules though. But we didn't actually do them. 'Cause they were giving us personal Hell, weren't they? We were supposed to have done these sheets and they were wrong. And we were getting the flack right there and then. And we kept saying, "We didn't do them, you know. We have to use them."
>
> . . . .
>
> Susan - It seems sensible for us to leave the self-directed then, in terms of this change.
>
> Betty - Yeah, but we still obeyed the committee in making them self-directed.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

Appeals to Significant Others

Werner has defined the phrase, "appeals to significant others," as referring to the use of experts "to lend support and authority to the position taken by program developers" (Werner, 1977, p. 106).

The Mentor developers' "significant others" seem to have been research in the areas of learning theory and in-service education for teachers. The impact of learning theory was most evident in the format of the modules.

When this format was questioned by one developer, another developer appealed to learning theory to provide support for the format used.

> Ted - Yeah, see I'm assuming that I'm interested in this, you know, and that I've come along and I've been unhappy about the way my units start and I've heard all about these Openers or whatever people call them, because there's a whole bunch of weasel words for that too. So, now I'm going to see two teachers with different ways of introducing Openers - one who's pretty directive and the other one who likes to work with the students, and I get some idea of what they are. And I know that in the end I'm going to work up by developing one anyway. So why would I want to experience one at the beginning and then work on one later?
>
> Tom - I think the rationale is pretty clear. The most meaningful examples from which to build concepts are ones with which you have had immediate contact, personal experience. This is the same principle of starting with as concrete an example as possible for concept development. And if the concept you're after is Opener, the most concrete example you can provide of Opener is a personal experience with an Opener; not reading about Openers, but having the experiences personally. That was our rationale.
>
> Ted - I know what our rationale was, but now I'm thinking of all of the criticisms we've had. They're saying things like, "Oh, to hell with all these characteristics."
>
> Tom - They didn't say, "To hell with all these characteristics!"
>
> Ted - Well, you know, I'm . . .
>
> Tom - They're saying that the crummy thing is too long. And I think what Brad is saying is, "That's okay, fine, let's find a short one." But let's try to build on personal experience with Openers before we turn to - sort of like Dale's Cone of Experience. Start with the most concrete example first before you turn to the less and less concrete examples for concept development. It still seems like a sound learning experience to me.

. . . .

> Tom - Sheridan phoned a week ago, and said that Tornowsky was looking at using this Mentor Program as a test case for the Tripartite Committee's approach to in-service. The Tripartite Committee, apparently, has listed a bunch of principles that they think should apply to in-service programs. And one of the principles they list is that the development of in-service programs should be based on sound learning principles. It seems to me that starting with that direct experience is consistent with what we know about good learning and what we know about good concept development. I guess I'd be loathe to start with a more abstract presentation of that concept. I'd prefer starting with something that's direct and as meaningful as we can manage.
>
> (August 27, 1980)

In the next excerpt, the appeal is to the literature on in-service, with specific mention made of Fullan and Pomfret's extensive review of the research done in this area.

> Brad - The way the format's going to be handled, I guess is the question. We kicked that around when we initially put it together and I still think it's based on some pretty sound, it was based on some pretty sound notions as to what would make an attractive in-service session, in terms of involvement, some visuals, and something to take away.
>
> Ted - Take them through the process.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - "Interest wanes when you get away from the practical, useful ideas." (Reading a pilot teacher's written comment)
>
> Tom - You know, I somehow think this last comment - you go back to that Fullan and Pomfret stuff and that's basically what he's saying. "Decentralize your resources, give them responsibility for generating materials, let them establish the appropriate focus." There are a whole bunch of those precepts.
>
> (Feb. 15, 1981)

Nihilism

According to Werner, nihilism involves methods whereby "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (1977, p. 115).

The ad hoc advisory committee was a target of nihilism.

> Brad - Well, let's go back to that Opener one and look at it. The committee seemed to be favourably impressed with that kind of format.
>
> Ted - We'll look at it carefully then. (Voice heavy with sarcasm)
>
> (April 11, 1980)
>
> Tom - Take them through a Resolving the Issue issue, where they might have enough personal knowledge to enable them to come to grips with it, to identify some of the values. The two things that I thought we . . .
>
> Betty - Let's make up a hypothetical thing about what the board is going to offer us for a salary.
>
> Ted - We did that last time and they bloody well blew us out of the room.
>
> . . . .
>
> Brad - I've just sat there and been bored silly as they go through this stuff, and this - and now we're backing up even one step further and saying, "Here's a proposal for what we're going to do." I know that they're going to - just kind of talk around it for an hour.
>
> (May 20, 1980)
>
> Ted - No, redoing the whole page for just one word isn't what you want to do.
>
> Susan - They'll be making more changes anyway, probably.
>
> Tom - The only thing I'm really concerned about is once you tell them about that kind of a change, then they start -

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - "Hmmm, why are we doing that, now? What's significant about that?" They they're likely to go back to Step Two

Ted - And say, "That's not what we did in the other, is it?"

Tom - and say, "Hey, this isn't . . ."

Susan - I don't know how you can be so patient.

(Jan. 22, 1981)

Brad - Resolving the Issue - I'm not sure that you can call that a demonstration.

Tom - Why?! The committee thought that was great stuff, super, fantastic. Give us 14,000 copies of that. We want everybody in the world to see it.

Susan - It makes you wonder about the committee.

(Laughter)

Tom - I don't think that's a bad demonstration either.

Susan - Dave Phillips thought the quality of that was good.

Ted - That was just, that was

Tom - ( ) quality.

Ted - being nice.

Susan - nice?

Ted - ( )

Susan - Yeah, call it being phoney, not nice.

Ted - Yeah, but . . .

Tom - It wasn't just Dave. Linda Adams thought it was good too. She was anxious to use it.

Ted - She probably voted against us as well.

Susan - Pardon?

Ted - She probably voted against us as well.

(Laughter)

(Feb. 15, 1981)

ACCESS was also a target of nihilism.

Ted - We also got taken around ACCESS, which is a . . . It's sort of like a trip to . . . It reminds me of Alice in Wonderland, except you're continually falling down the hole. You never hit bottom. (Laughter) Didn't you feel that way, though? You're taken around all of this place. In this studio, oh, we're doing a film about this, or whatever, you know. Very impressed and you can hear hammers in the background, so you know someone's working. There's a gnome at the back who hangs on walls to give visitors the impression that work's going on. Because the rest of the time we only saw two people actually engaged in what I would call anything that was producing material. We saw one . . .

Tom - Not like if they came over here.

Ted - We saw one guy editting a film and we saw two fellows who calimed that they were putting the sound track on another. But the rest - every time we went somewhere it was, "Hi, Bill," "Hi, this." Nobody, everybody knows that everybody's going around. There's always aspidistras all over the place. Every time you come to a, a ramp in the stairs, there's aspidistras and you expect that Johnson fellow from "Laugh-In," - you know, with the German helmet, to peer through it at any time. Then,they have to take you around and then you get this thing about what we haven't got. And what they haven't got is what everybody in the school system has. They don't have machines to put things on half-inch tape. They don't have machines to put things on three-quarter inch tape. But they've got no end of - you know, like you look at the editting thing, they've got these reels here. They've got all this film going in.

Brad - It's made.

Ted - It's like a sort of, you think you're on the fourth level of Dante's Inferno when you're in this editting room. And then anything that's for production for school . . .

(Nov. 14, 1980)

Another organization toward which nihilism was directed was Alberta Education.

> Tom - That's the change that's, I guess, most extensive - that they're going to mandate so much specific knowledge content in every unit that to continue the whole farce that it's gonna be inquiry is just ridiculous.
>
> Mary - It's a waste of time. As soon as you tell people what the content, what specific content you want, they'll just . . .
>
> Betty - They're giving them carte blanche to do the old traditional facts, knowledge.
>
> Tom - And they've got this testing committee now that's in the process of putting together a test they're going to use; and, of course, teachers, once they get wind of that - you can't blame them.
>
> Susan - Of course!
>
> Tom - They're going to be oriented toward making sure that the kids have the facts.
>
> Mary - Why are they so gung ho on insisting that we continue with this approach, then, to in-service.
>
> Tom - I think, because, in the process of developing a curriculum guide, a lot of commitment was built up that
>
> Mary - That this is the rhetoric.
>
> Tom - this is the good thing to do.
>
> Mary - This is the rhetoric for the public.
>
> Tom - Then the Minister mandates that, they plug in all of the specific content. And to be sure that that happens, he's going to test the kids on it. They're going to be tested at the end of Grade six, Grade nine, and Grade twelve.
>
> Mary - Why doesn't he test them on whether or not they're developing any strategies for dealing with values, or whether they're developing any skills in reading a graph, or uh, reading a timeline?

Tom - Because, very simply, Peter Lougheed doesn't give a damn about those kinds of goals. Peter Lougheed is concerned that kids know Canadian history and geography.

Mary - But, like, what criteria are we using to decide that? I mean . . .

Betty - Here's a good statement and I'd love to know how he thinks he's going to test this - "Mr. Speaker, the Department of Education intents to test students' knowledge about Canadian history, geography, and citizenship."

Mary - They'll give them paper-and-pencil tests.

Betty - How do you test citizenship?

Tom - Knowledge about . . .

Mary - Ask them things like - What does 'R.C.M.P.' stand for?

Tom - What is the function of the

Mary - How many seats are there in the House of Commons?

Tom - Senate? What is the function of the House and what's the function of the Prime Minister?

Mary - How old do you have to be to vote? Who's your M.L.A.?

Tom - Sure, that's citizenship.

Mary - Who's the mayor of Edmonton?

Tom - Those are the kinds of things that are going to go in there and . . .

Betty - "It will not be a test of current curriculum or instruction. It is intended as a preinstructional test and it is expected to assist in assessing appropriate instruction and content for the region."

Tom - Well, that's just the one this Fall. That's this little - that teachers' Black test.

Mary - But, it's saying that those things are the important things, because you want to find out what kids know about them now.

. . . .

> Tom - So, apparently, there's a lot of concern that that statement about "Canadian knowledge as a precondition for integrated studies" meant that you had to start the year with a straight factual unit on chronological history and regional geography.
>
> Betty - And, hopefully, get on to the social inquiry process later?
>
> Tom - I don't know if "hopefully" is the word or not. But, at any rate, that should come first, and given the propensity of teachers to stretch their first unit out at great length, (I'm the same way, I must admit), if they never got around to social studies as it's written in that document, well, it wouldn't be surprising to anybody, I'm sure. And then, since they're going to have the testing, at the end of the year in Grades six, nine, and twelve, toward the end of the year everything else is going to get dropped while they work on factual knowledge.
>
> . . . .
>
> Betty - Well, where does this leave our in-service stuff?
>
> Tom - The direction that we were given was to go ahead with the program as it was originally proposed and not to worry about the, any change in the program.
>
> Mary - It's going to be just like the Kanata Kits - it won't fit.
>
> Betty - We're creating a white elephant here, are we?
>
> (May 13, 1980)

The 1981 social studies curriculum came in for a great deal of nihilistic comment as well. The following comments were made upon looking through a draft version of the new curriculum.

> Tom - So, I guess what he was saying was, "You guys had better have a look at the treatment of analyzing, evaluating data and Openers and so on in the revised curriculum," because according to him anyway, there are some more specific definitions of those in this version which might have some implications for those modules, so it behooves us to have a glance at the revised document.
>
> . . . .

Mary - "Social Studies defined" - that's going to be fun. I should have read that last week when I was doing my . . . (Laughter) I'm always a week behind. Now, wait a minute - here we are, you see. My thesis is just going to be right in here - "Social studies is the school subject in which students learn to explore, and where possible, to resolve social issues that are of public and personal concern: a. history, geography and the social sciences provide the content for inquiry into social issues." You're going to have to shape up there Tom. It's going to be right into the history, geography. You're going to be right in line with Manitoba any moment now. They sit for one hundred and ten years and, by God, you're right back to us. (Laughter) "These disciplines enable students to bring to the issue a better understanding of their cultural heritage, their natural environment, the society in which they live, and the complexity of the human experience."

Tom - Love it.

Mary - Beautiful. "Citizenship - Effective citizenship is the ultimate goal of social studies." Gee! "The value, knowledge, and skill objectives of this curriculum are designed to help students develop intellectual independence," (Not bloody likely!), "moral maturity and more effective involvement in the political, economic, and social affairs of their communities." Well, that's certainly different than what was there before. That isn't the way it was defined before.

Tom - There must be an awful lot of room for political geography in that.

Mary - Um hm. Okay, and here it's all spelled out - where the geography is, where the history is, where the political science is, where the economics is. This is Ontario's curriculum, you guys. I told you. Hang in there. You'll be right with us.

Tom - The content is certainly far more specific. It makes the '71 version of the program look as nebulous as . . . Want to take bets on how many people will read that document?

Mary - About the same number that read the last one. (Laughter) A few.

Tom - This is fatter - more intimidating.

. . . .

Betty - It's quicker to give the kids a retrieval chart that's already done. That saves you a step in the process. And, better still, tell them what you want them to find out and they'll find out.

Mary - Well, in essence, you can't blame the teachers for holding that view, because, in fact, the curriculum says the same thing really. It doesn't really want teachers to, to come up with social issues from the children. It says, "These are the issues you should deal with in this unit."

. . . .

Mary - That curriculum really is prescriptive. And it's becoming more prescriptive, and what we're trying to do in this in-service is to make teachers less prescriptive and so we're flying in the face of what the curriculum is trying to do.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Nihilism was directed toward the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units as well.

Betty - See, what I was thinking - the difficulty with planning examples to fit in the modules taken from the Teaching Units and the Kanata Kits would be phenomenal because some of the Units, for instance, have no affective stuff in them at all.

Hugh - Do you like this generalization?

Betty - How do you feel about it?

Tom - The whole cognitive and affective ( ) evaluating knowledge.

Mary - I like the fact that China ( ). It makes me feel good.

Brad - On a five-point scale, how good? ( ) skills, inquiry and participation skills.

. . . .

Betty - But if we have to confine ourselves to examples out of Teaching Units and Kanata Kits, we're going to be hard pressed.

(July 28, 1980)

Betty - Because in some of the units there are, and Kanata Kits, there are no analyzing activities. There are no evaluation of data activities. I don't know how you feel but if somebody arbitrarily said, you know, "Here's what other people are doing," and it's not on the unit I designed, I might not take it too well. So . . .

Tom - You all see what her problem is?

Mary - Um hm.

Betty - I was talking to Mary about it before.

Mary - I suggested that she just put in a disclaimer saying, "For the purposes of this in-service, these categories were being, or these ways of organizing are being selected, while in the Teachers' Units and Kanata Kits, other titles were used. The type of activity was . . ."

Betty - It goes even deeper than that though. It's not just other titles that they used. It's wrong intents are specified.

Tom - I hear you saying part of the problem is that - a teacher teaching Grade Four looks at the back to find some examples of analyzing and evaluating data, and hits a blank. This Teaching Unit doesn't have any analyzing and evaluating data as such. So there's a teacher sitting there saying, "Hey, I thought we were supposed to be using a process which included analyzing and evaluating data. How come here's an exemplary unit that doesn't have it?"

. . . .

But it starts muddying when it comes to organizing it because as long as,I think Brad remarked the other day, these Kanata Kits have retrieval charts already done in them. You tell me the kids do any organizing of data when they've got the retrieval charts handed to them on a stupid handout with the data organized.

. . . .

Betty - It's hard to get round. Like you were saying, I don't want to have blanks appearing, saying, you know - it's pretty hard to say there are no analyzing data activities in this unit. But it would be true because there aren't in some of them. There aren't in some of them I was looking at this morning. There aren't in some of the Kanata Kits.

Tom - I'd put down what you can and at the top a sentence that said, "These are some examples that were found in some of the units."

Betty - It would have to be that way, but not in a way that says the other units don't have any. But it should be saying that, you know.

Tom - Well, just leave a blank place and type in there - "This lousy unit didn't have an example."

(July 31, 1980)

Mary - So there really isn't any way that children will define their own value issue anymore.

Betty - The Kanata Kits don't even pretend to do that. They start off with a value issue.

. . . .

Betty - The people who designed those Teaching Units didn't know the process. And those are the people telling others how to do it? Now, it seems to me that it's been left, it's kind of the onus is at our feet now.

. . . .

Betty - Have any of you looked closely at the Grade Eight Kanata Kit? It completely avoids the whole social inquiry process. It boggles. It does a token thing of it, but there is no resolving of any issue. There is no applying of any decision.

(Aug. 11, 1980)

Tom - It's one of the handouts I'm gonna use with my 312 course under the heading of "What do you get for 8½ million dollars?" That's what you get - to sing "Oh, Canada" every morning.

Brad - Symbols.

Tom - I'm surprised the Teacher's Guide doesn't have the words to "Oh, Canada" in it and some kind of pledge to the flag in it.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Ted - Of course, I always think then if we told them it was from a Grade Two Kanata Kit, they should be up in the air about the damned Kanata Kit. They didn't like it. What the Hell do they think some kids are going to think of it?

. . . .

Ted - Because it seems to me that, however, we go about it, you know, the constraints, you know, like if I was teaching in Pincher Creek, you know, I mean, I'd probably be using the Kanata Kit to keep a desk up, you know, because the leg's broken off. And, I mean that could happen.

. . . .

Tom - Well, what are the units and Kanata Kits that stick out in peoples' minds as good ones?

Ted - Now, there's the problem.

. . . .

Brad - That's right! That's right! They took our Tourist unit and stuck it in there holus-bolus.

Tom - That's a lousy unit. That unit is the biggest mishmash!

Betty - Turn the tape off because I'm getting sick.

Brad - I think you'd better clarify that for that tape. You just said it includes our material and then you say it's lousy, so . . .

Tom - You know, what I was going to say was it diesn't seem to me to hang together very well.

. . . .

Betty - Scrap the Grade Six Teaching Unit. We may as well forget Grade Six completely, because that Grade Six Teaching Unit is very poor and there is no Kanata Kit.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Betty - There's only one shared, just because

Bill - One shared and two teacher . . . .

Betty - they're hard to find in the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units. That was about the best example Ted could find that he thought could be codified, and used that way, from that Grade Twelve kit, Kanata Kit.

(Feb. 11, 1981
10:10 - 11:50)

Ted - See, it was interesting that the few times I've been around where we've ever done any pilotting at all, if ever we've used examples from the Kanata Kit in the first step, they've always rejected them.

. . . .

Ted - That's the first time though that I've ever sat down and tried to do that Grade Seven one.

Betty - Well, I hadn't tried it before. There was no way we could understand the directions for it, about how to score yourself on a sheet.

Ted - And you could just imagine a Grade Seven kid trying to sort it out.

Betty - And, of course, they were holding us, as Susan was saying, they were holding us responsible for those pages out of the Kanata Kit.

. . . .

Susan - That's right, yes.

Betty - But we didn't develop it! This was developed by somebody else.

Susan - We were responsible for the whole curriculum.

Betty - We had to use them in these modules though. But we didn't actually do them. 'Cause they were giving us personal Hell, weren't they? We were supposed to have done these sheets and they were wrong. And we were getting the flack right there and then. And we kept saying, "We didn't do them, you know. We have to use them."

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Pilot teachers did not escape nihilistic comment either.

Pillotting the modules was a very disheartening experience. As a result, the developers became very discouraged.

Tom - Not a good way to start this morning because I just feel, why bother!

Susan - Well, that's natural. Why bother doing all this when they hate what we've done so far anyway?

(Feb. 15, 1981)

The quoted comments in the next excerpt (Aug. 26, 1980) are being read from feedback forms filled out by participants in a pilot session of the Openers module. Part of the module had involved viewing a videotape entitled "People In Need." The videotape showed two of the developers doing an Opener to a unit on Haves and Have-Nots, with a Grade 4/5 class. The children were asked to produce paper squares of a particular size, with one-half the class given the appropriate tools, and the other half not. The reward for each perfect square was a jellybean.

Brad - "Jellybeans are not nutritious." (Reading from a Feedback Form)

Susan - Can you believe it?

Brad - God!

Betty - The one lady who wrote that there - I couldn't believe it. She was most annoyed.

Brad - I just read that.

Betty - Two people responded that way, that they didn't like the idea of using jellybeans. They weren't nutritious. Too much sweet bugs the teeth. Question Four - "What activities were most helpful?" Now I think this is interesting.

Ted - "Lack discipline, rather noisy."

(Laughter)

Brad - I've been told that before. My students look at and say, "My God, you don't know how to control kids very well."

(Laughter)

Tom - We did accomplish what we were after.

Ted - "Is the use of candy as a reward necessary?"

Brad - Isn't that unbelievable?

Ted - "Do not teach for money."

Tom - "Activities that were least helpful."

Betty - One cheeky person wrote, "Filling out the questionnaire was least helpful."

(Laughter)

Ted - That's true. Look at all the trouble it caused us. Another winner.

(Aug. 26, 1980)

Betty - Will there also be some teachers who will sit and pick holes for the fact that they're not,

Tom - Likely.

Betty - they're not superfying the production?

Tom - Likely.

Susan - It doesn't matter what we do . . .

Betty - Look at the comments that John Black's, of course admittedly, we keep getting back to the fact that they were so picky, but John Black's group were saying things like, you know, "The noise in that V.T.R. was terrible!" and "I didn't know what he was really trying to do," and . . .

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Betty - To suit people with this attitude though! They don't give a shit! Why should we revamp things to suit people like this?

. . . .

Betty - See, they, they were talking about bringing stuff back from in-services. They like to bring things back that they could use in the classroom the next day. And we reminded them that this was a process.

Tom - Step Six is supposed to help them generate

Susan - But I guess the point is it helps them to generate.

Tom - something for their own classes.

Betty - Yeah, not us giving it to them. They wanted something handed to them. They were very happy when we told them there would be Appendices that would contain certain examples. They were very happy about that.

Susan - Yeah, in fact, that's what one of them mentioned was the best thing about Resolving the Issue, that it had examples in the Appendix.

Betty - But they still don't know the process, so what darn good are the examples going to be to them? You know, they're going to go about them in a teacher-directed nonprocess way. And the examples will fall flat.

. . . .

Susan - You know why they liked the Decision Tree?

Tom - Why did they? I was curious about that.

Susan - Well, the kids would be able to colour it.

Tom - (Loud laughter)

Betty - Are we ever flogging a dead horse, or are we not?

Tom - Oh, gee!

Susan - No, but the point is, I understand why.

Tom - Ohhh!

Susan - No, listen. You know, the point is that that was very straightforward. And they said, "You know, you can see how it works up and everything. It's the kind of thing I can see using in my class more than the Decision Map. I can see using that and I can see, you know, the kids may even want to colour it afterwards." And I knew that comment, you know, when you say it it sounds so superficial and everything, but at least she felt it was good because it was something she could take away from the in-service and use. And that gets back to your point about teachers wanting something to use. There was something she could use.

Betty - We were facetious months ago. Who was it said something about some workshop we were at, or whatever, conference - "Social studies is what you plan in the hallway on your way down after recess." That's it, isn't it? That's the attitude right there, that you got a sheet of paper to get the kids to colour. Then maybe a wee bit to do first before they colour it. That, that's social studies.

. . . .

Betty - I think that this group at Lakeside Elementary is suspect and I don't think we should be . . .

Susan - Well, Alice said they're representative though.

Tom - Representative of what she deals with all the time. She walks into an atmosphere of resenting the new curriculum, resenting somebody coming out to tell them what they're supposed to be doing in their classrooms, and the usual thing is to find the staff response similar to what we're getting at Lakeside Elementary.

Betty - But we're not responsible for this feeling of militancy on their part.

Tom - So we're not.

Susan - But we still have to work within that.

Brad - Could we create anything then that would - that they would like?

Tom - I think they'd probably like it if we walked on coals in our bare feet.

Ted - Well, they did bring up the point that . . .

Tom - and cried a lot.

(Laughter)

Betty - And analyzed and organized at the same time.

Ted - Rita did bring up the point, didn't she, that they bring up these super speakers from the U.S.?

Susan - Oh, yeah, somebody from California really impressed her. She made her laugh and made her excited about . . .

Betty - That's entertainment though. That's not learning.

Susan - Yes, but that's the whole point.

Tom - At 3:30 they're ready for a little entertainment. Serious work is not what they're looking for at the end of their day.

Susan - But the point is, would they think this was any better at nine in the morning? I wonder.

Betty - What's the matter with their attitude? Heaven's to Betsy! Those teachers are really living compared to twenty years ago.

(Laughter)

They're getting time off class to go to in-services! I never in my life got that! I went to every in-service at the end of the day.

Susan - So did I and I always thought I was lucky.

Betty - And I could count on the fingers of one hand anything that was entertaining in any of them.

Tom - It's not twenty years ago.

Betty - ( ) That's what's happening. People are just giving them lots of goodies to placate them, entertaining sessions and what have you.

Ted - You said it.

. . . .

Ted - If I walked on coals I'd burn my feet and they'd say, "There you are. Bloody social studies educators. They burn their feet. Science guys can do it. They've got a better deal."

. . . .

Brad - What would, would there be any advantage, to, to not handing them the booklet? To have the pages, some of the pages separately.

Tom - Gee, the ones who were in on the plot to go through it in ten minutes would be really crushed.

Brad - Yeah.

Tom - "Give me that! Give me that! I want it!"

. . . .

Brad - On the overhead, though, you might just have the model itself. The other things you would talk to. And then, and then, once you've made them listen to it, . . .

Tom - Treating them like little kids.

Brad - Yeah, it is. Well, it's trying to control the communication that's going on.

Tom - Right.

Ted - Well, that gets at the idea of justification.

Tom - Make them sit so they're facing you so that ( ).

Brad - So that they can't be miserable, can't talk to each other, and make snide, offhand remarks.

. . . .

Ted - We'll lead 'em. We'll lead 'em. We'll say, - I'll share an example with them of the Riverbend one. And then try to get responses from them. "What have you done?" (Laughter) "Nothing." "That figured." "What have you got?" (Laughter)

Tom - "Oh, worthless one, what have you done?"

Betty - Rita'll pop you in the nose.

Ted - ( ) Get off your ass and do some social action! (Laughter)

. . . .

Ted - I'll wear a suit tomorrow. Come with a bandage on. "I tried puttin' my hand on hot coals, but it didn't work."

(Laughter)

Betty - And come limping in.

(Laughter)

Ted - I'll get you to paint a black mark across my hands for the poker.

Susan - Maybe this won't be so bad after all.

Betty - Do some of those cute and fancy experiments that kids love. You know, the kind where you put a saucer of water and a piece of paper and put a tumbler over the water glass. First of all you light the paper, put the glass over it, and the water all gets sucked up into the glass. Very effective. Kids love it.

Tom - Well, it's not social action though. I think what you do is you start off by having them decide to go on strike tomorrow."

Ted - And then they'll turn around and say, "Well, we needn't do the rest because we won't work."

(Feb. 15, 1981)

Nihilism is a plausibility structure involved with maintaining a shared viewpoint. A shared viewpoint is developed through conversation.

Berger has said that

> Plausibility, in the sense of what people actually find credible, of views of reality depends upon the social support these receive. . . We obtain our notions about the word originally from other human beings, and these notions continue to be plausible to us in a very large measure because others continue to affirm them . . . . It is in conversation, in the broadest sense of the word, that we build up and keep going our view of the world. It follows that this view will depend upon the continuity and consistency of such conversation and that it will change as we change conversation partners. (Berger, 1969, p. 43)

The developers engaged in a great deal of conversation, both in and out of committee meetings. These conversations served to maintain a shared viewpoint concerning "outsiders" such as members of the ad hoc committee. Through conversation, members gave one another support in a situation where they felt relatively powerless, in that the parameters were determined by Alberta Education, ACCESS, and the ad hoc committee. They felt beseiged by external forces. The use of nihilism was a defense against all of this. By defining other viewpoints as unworthy, perceived threats to one's own point of view of reality are neutralized.

Design

The analysis of the Design involved two substeps. The first was a breakdown of the Mentor Program according to the implicit and explicit decisions which it represents, and their constraints.

Implicit decisions are those which are adopted without consideration of alternatives. Explicit decisions are those which are made after due consideration has been given to alternative courses of action.

Each decision has been linked to an appeal to circumstance or to a principle. According to Walker,

> The curriculum designer wants to be able to say he was constrained either by circumstances or by his principles to decide as he did. To be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice. (1971, p. 55)

The second substep was an analysis of the Design using the same categories applied to the Platform: Purpose, Format, Content, Setting, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

Issue	Decision	Constraint
	(I) - Implicit (E) - Explicit	(C) - Circumstance (P) - Principle
1. Should the in-service program rely on a leader or should it be capable of being used independently by participants?	(E) - Deader directed	(C) - Pilot teachers - Alberta Education decision to appoint 125 resource teachers as in-service leaders

	Issue	Decision	Constraint
2.	Where are the classroom demonstrations to take place and who is to teach them?	(E) - Taught by teachers in a variety of classroom situations around the province	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee - ACCESS - Alberta Education
3.	Should an in-service with the intent of teaching about inquiry, use inquiry?	(E) - Partly	(C) - Pilot teachers (P) - Belief in learning theory
4.	Where did the role of developers end and that of ACCESS begin?	(E) - Developers - writing of print materials. Pilotting and revision of print materials. Editting of print materials. Writing of lesson plans for videotaped classroom demonstrations. Consultation during production. ACCESS - Production of program, including print and nonprint components.	(C) - Contract - ACCESS
5.	Were teachers to choose between two modules dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to their preferred teaching styles (teacher-directed or teacher-student shared decision-making) or were aspects of each teaching style to be in one module?	(E) - Aspects of each teaching style in one module	(C) - Could not seem to develop a separate module on teacher-student shared decision-making
6.	Where is the content for the classroom demonstrations to be obtained?	(E) - Primarily Kanata Kits and Teaching Units	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee
7.	Were the modules to be varied in format or uniform?	(I) Uniform	(C) - Ad Hoc Committee

The number of implicit decisions in the design of any program is endless. However, any implicit decision should be able to be retrieved by asking how a particular issue was decided.

While the number of explicit decisions is finite, the researcher does not claim that these six are the only decisions made on the basis of consideration of alternatives. However, they are certainly the major ones.

Purpose

In the Proposal the purpose was stated as being to explore "alternate classroom organizations and instructional sequences inherent in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Program" (p. 1).

Since the final materials sent to ACCESS by the developers did not contain a statement of purpose, the final product produced by ACCESS was searched for such. This excerpt was taken to be a statement of purpose.

> The assumption is that, prior to using the Mentor Series, teachers will have undergone some initial experiences that will have given them a general introduction to the curriculum components, topics, objectives, and learning resources.
>
> The Mentor Series then can be utilized in giving more specific assistance to teachers in developing their abilities to help students with the various aspects of the inquiry process that is basic to teaching Social Studies, as outlined in the Curriculum Guide. (Mentor Project, 1981, p. i)

This statement is much more specific than the one found in the Proposal. It ties the in-service program, not only to the provincial curriculum, but specifically to the inquiry model within it.

It should be noted also that the "program" referred to in the Proposal is the 1978 interim curriculum, while the "Curriculum Guide" referred to in the Mentor Project book is the 1981 curriculum.

Format

In the Proposal, the format of the program was organized around two sections. Part One was a self-awareness inventory. Based on this, participants would choose which of four kinds of in-service experiences they wished to pursue in Part Two: teacher-presenter, learning contracts, learning centres, or group investigations.

In the final product, Part One was retained, but Part Two, as described in the Proposal, had disappeared. Rather than choosing among four classroom organizational patterns, participants could now choose among thirteen modules, nine of which were tied to the steps of the inquiry model in the curriculum guide; three being concerned with student evaluation and one on valuing.

The developers, in the Proposal, make note of the fact that research indicates that in-service programs should be ongoing, as opposed to one-shot sessions. They also note that constraints of various types frequently make this impossible. Therefore, the program was to be flexible to enable it to meet the needs of both those who would be able to participate in a longterm program and those who would not.

The final format of the program would seem on the surface to have achieved this end. There is the option of participating in one or more of the self-contained modules. If an individual chose to become involved in every module, then the program would be longterm. However, it is left to the discretion of individual school jurisdictions as to whether or not the many advantages of longterm in-service are built in. These would include opportunities to try out some of the strategies with a trusted observer, who could provide feedback and coaching.

Content

The content of the in-service program, according to the Proposal, was to be concerned with two areas:

> Organizing Social Studies for inquiry approaches
>
> Using a variety of approaches and strategies to increase student interest and motivation (P. 11)

The focus was to be on the teacher developing a unit for classroom use based on one of the four classroom organizational patterns: teacher presenter, learning contracts, learning centres, or group investigations.

The content of each pattern was to vary according to the components considered necessary to making it most effective. However, each was to include case studies of classrooms in action, samples of children's work, pertinent articles, and samples of teacher tools useful to making the particular strategy most effective.

The Mentor Project ended up being very uniform in the kinds of experiences offered in each module. Each contained the following steps:

Part 1: Introduction
Part 2: Experiencing a ________
Part 3: Characteristics of a ______
Part 4: Classroom Demonstrations
Part 5: Sharing Ideas about ______
Part 6: Developing a ________
Part 7: Examples from Kanata Kits and Teaching Units
Part 8: Module Evaluation Form

Retained from the Proposal were the case-studies, or classroom demonstrations, as they were now called. The other aspects of the proposed program were generally discarded, with the exception of the student work samples, which do appear in some modules.

A major difference was in the Proposal's focus on participants developing a unit for use in their own classrooms. Now, each module had one segment (Part 6) devoted to developing an activity using the skill with which that module dealt; i.e., in the Evaluating Data module, participants would develop an activity for their class involving evaluation of data for a unit with which they would be working.

However, there was some doubt that even the little that remained of the original focus on participants developing something for use in their own classrooms would materialize in practice. It was found in pilotting, that first, there was rarely enough time for this activity, and second, even when there was, participants weren't particularly interested in doing it.

Setting

No mention is made as to the efficacy of having the in-service take place in the school setting with the staff of the school as the participants.

However, participants could form "intact groups" on the basis of the self-awareness inventory. The idea of assisting group cohesiveness through the use of "pens, paper, folders, notebooks, etc. bearing a logo symbolic of their group goals" (p. 12) has been discarded. The group interaction built into the modules would promote this end.

Role of Participants

1. Prior to the In-Service Program

This note appeared in the Leader's Manual of each module.

> Pre-Attendance Preparation
>
> 1. With some groups it may be possible to involve teachers in preliminary activities such as:
>   - (i) Bring to the session specific issues/problems they will be pursuing with their classes.
>   - (ii) Examples of ways to introduce issues/problems they have used in their classes to share with others.
>   - (iii) Samples of children's work.
>
> (Leader's Guide, Openers, p. 2)

This was a way of helping participants to shape the session and, as a result, to have a stake in its success.

The Proposal (and the in-service literature) emphasized that teachers' needs should be taken into consideration when designing in-service programs and that teachers should have a role in the planning.

The results of two teacher surveys on in-service needs are itemized in the Proposal. These would seem to have been taken into consideration in developing the proposed program.

2. During the In-Service Program

While teachers did not have a role in planning the in-service program prior to its inception, the Proposal outlines a role for them in planning their experiences during the in-service. Based on their own knowledge of their preferences as to teaching styles and the additional illumination received as a result of the self-awareness inventory, they were to choose the in-service experiences in which they were to participate in Part Two of the session.

This element of choice was retained in the final product, in that participants were still intended to make a choice following the self-awareness inventory. However, the decision was no longer particularly pertinent to the questions in the inventory, since they dealt with teaching style. The choice, with the exception of the valuing and evaluation modules, was based on which step of the inquiry model one wished to explore. In the final draft of the

Proposal, each of these modules was actually going to be two. The activities in each of the two would be similar, but one module was to be intended for participants with a teacher-presenter classroom style and the other was to be intended for teachers who preferred to share the decision-making role with students. With this proposed format, the self-awareness inventory would still be useful in assisting participants to make a choice. However, in the final format, it was decidedly emasculated.

3. Following the In-Service Program

There was no change in the intent that participants would, following the in-service, implement the strategies learned. However, they would no longer be able to implement a unit developed in the in-service.

Evaluation

At the end of each module an evaluation form was included. The questions it asked were as follows:

1. What were the strengths of the module?
2. What were the weaknesses of the module?
3. What improvements can you suggest for the module?

The Leader's Guide for each module referred to the evaluation form in this way:

> Leaders may wish to ask participants to complete the evaluation form. The information gathered in the evaluation form may be useful in planning future in-service sessions.

As Nash and Ireland (1979) point out, feedback such as this is of limited value. This form does not begin to meet either the intents for evaluation expressed in the Proposal or in the in-service literature.

No provision was made to determine whether or not the in-service program actually had any impact on the classroom behaviour or participants.

One of the major concerns of evaluation mentioned in the Proposal is to obtain descriptive data concerning teachers' activities in the in-service. There was no provision built in for this in the final outcome.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

This study was concerned with describing the decision-making processes involved in the development of the Mentor Project, an in-service program.

It was intended to meet the call, dating from the late sixties, and continuing through the seventies, for

> individuals . . . [to] take the time to write down descriptions of their activities, the kinds of decisions that they make, the kinds of information upon which they base their decisions, the kinds of conflicts that arise within the initiator group and how these conflicts are resolved, etc. (Schwab, 1969, p. 19)

The researcher was a member of the development committee for the Mentor Project and participant observation was the methodology used.

Data collection, over a fifteen month period, included tape recordings of development committee meetings, informal interviews, and collecting of relevant documents.

Analysis of data was loosely based on Decker Walker's "naturalistic model" which grew out of observations of how curriculum development actually occurs, as opposed to theoretical stances as to the way in which it is 'supposed to occur.' This model postulates three stages to the development process. These are platform, deliberation, and design.

From the Mentor Proposal was drawn "an idea of what is and a vision of what ought to be" (Walker, 1971, p. 52) which were considered to constitute the platform of the development committee. Implicit within the platform was a view of teachers, children, evaluation, in-service, resources, and social studies. These, along with explicit statements concerning the shape of the intended program, surveys on teacher needs, the recent research on in-service, and certain practical restraints listed in the Proposal, were used to paint a picture of the Mentor Program, as the developers envisioned it.

The second stage in Walker's model is called deliberation. He identifies four deliberative episodes within this stage. These are issues, explications, brainstorms, and reports. All of these were identified in the Mentor tapes.

Four other episodes were identified as well. These episodes took up a great deal of time during meetings, but were concerned more with preparation for deliberation~~,~~ rather than deliberation itself. These episodes were organization, presentation, update and invention.

Another aspect of deliberation emerged from the transcripts of the Mentor development committee. It was noted that, in many cases, there was a social aspect to the deliberations. In searching for a way to make sense of this social aspect, Berger's idea of "plausibility structures" was discovered. The plausibility structures which seemed most appropriate to these data were legitimations, appeals to significant others, and nihilism. These were used in two ways by the developers. Legitimations and appeals to significant others were used to justify their decisions. Nihilism was used as a means of 'letting off steam' and as a way of drawing committee members together.

The third stage of Walker's model is called design. The design was analyzed in two steps. The first step involved a categorization of the major decisions according to whether they were implicit or explicit and a delineation of the circumstances or principles which were used to justify each decision. Circumstances were used far more than principles as a justification for decisions.

The second step (not part of Walker's model) involved an analysis of the design, using the same categories as applied to the platform. It was found that much of the "vision of what ought to be" had vanished during the development process.

Werner (1977) has said, in reference to a completed social studies program, that it is "a 'frozen slide' in the film, as it were, of the program developers' streams of intentionality" (p. 125). The Mentor Program is such as this. This piece of research attempted to present not only the 'frozen slide' of the program, but some snapshots which depict the growth and change along the way.

Conclusions

As with any model, the naturalistic model has its strengths and limitations.

One limitation concerns the use of the category of deliberation. Walker concerns himself only with "the intellectual processes of inquiry, judgment, decision, and action that preceded, surrounded, and underly the design of a curriculum" (1975, p. 110). He categorizes this discourse according to four deliberative episodes - issue, brainstorm, report, and explication.

However, while these episodes may comprise the whole of deliberation, deliberation does not comprise the whole of the development process. Other kinds of episodes were found in the Mentor transcripts. These were called update, organization, presentation, and invention. These episodes comprise the "agenda-making and reviewing, making of announcements, reviewing progress to date, and the like" (1975, p. 109) which Walker chooses to ignore.

A third aspect of discourse is not included in Walker's naturalistic model and yet is present in the Mentor transcripts. This was a social aspect. It is a question for further study as to whether or not the Mentor Project was unique in this regard. However, it did comprise a part of the discourse. The categories used to organize this data originated with Berger's (1969) concept of plausibility structures. These categories were nihilism, appeals to significant others, and legitimations.

By including only deliberative discourse for consideration in his model, Walker excludes much of the data which gives the "flavour" of the development process. For instance, the organizational episode in which the Mentor developers are handing out the sheets of a trial module, is indicative of one aspect of the development process. If only deliberative episodes had been included, the picture presented of the development process would have been incomplete. Deliberative discourse cannot proceed without the assistance of the discourse of the other episodes.

The four deliberative episodes, the additional episodes of organization, update, presentation, and invention, and the three plausibility structures could all be subsumed under a title such as "Dynamics."

Another limitation concerns one of Walker's deliberative episodes, the issue. Walker's definition of issue is: "opposing points of view are propounded and defended, and discussion is intense and animated" (Walker, 1971, p. 119). This definition was changed somewhat when applied to the Mentor data. It became simply the idea of trying to resolve a problem. This did not necessarily involve hot dispute, but rather the laying out of alternatives in trying to come to a decision.

Walker's definition seems to depend on there being strongly opposing points of view within the development committee itself. This is not always the case, and was not the case with Mentor. It was not usually the developers who had opposing viewpoints, but the developers and members of the ad hoc advisory committee. Therefore, when the developers dealt with an issue, it was usually a matter of anticipating or reviewing ad hoc committee agreements and then preparing counter-arguments. While feelings ran high at times, there was not much point in engaging in hot dispute with people who were not present.

Another limitation concerns the design. The design, as Walker defines it, is very difficult to specify precisely. While the number of explicit decisions is finite, the implicit decisions can never be completely specified.

Walker notes this problem, but decides that it is not serious since

> with accurate records any question that can be asked about the implicit design can be answered. In framing the question the questioner must ask how a particular issue was decided and this characterization of the issue defines the decision of interest. (1971, p. 55)

The problem here stems from the fact that it is difficult to identify those issues that do not result in explicit decisions. Walker defines the implicit design as being made up of "unconsidered choices" (1971, p. 54). It is difficult to identify the issue involved when courses of action are adopted automatically without consideration of alternatives. Furthermore, most projects do not keep the "accurate records" upon which Walker seems to be depending for specification of the implicit design.

A second limitation of the design as a set of decisions is the difficulty of using it as a basis for comparing the platform and the final products. For this reason a second level of analysis was added to this research. In this level of analysis the final product was analyzed in terms of the same categories which had originally been applied to the platform: Purpose, Format, Content, Setting, Role of Participants, and Evaluation.

This level of analysis allowed a comparison to be made between the final products and the developers' platform. The necessity of including this step was determined by the holistic nature of this research, as opposed to Walker's emphasis on analyzing several deliberative episodes in detail.

The strengths of this model are many. First and foremost, it shows program development as it really is, with all its flaws; not as pundits may have decided it should be.

When compared to the classical model as outlined by Tyler, certain specific advantages become evident.

In the classical model, objectives are essential, since without them, learning experiences cannot be rationally selected or assessed. The problem here is that developers do not always explicitly state their objectives, and if they do state them, it is not necessarily the first task they undertake. Walker's concept of platform, the system(s) of beliefs and values held by developers, accounts for this. If no set of objectives is formally stated, then the researcher can turn to articles written by developers, correspondence, a project Proposal which outlines intents, or any other documents which might illuminate the pertinent beliefs and values held by the developers.

If objectives are explicitly set out, the research (Wooten, 1965; Eisner, 1967; Shipman, 1974; Shaw, 1975) indicates that they are not the starting point, but rather, they rise out of deliberation.

As Reid points out:

> Deliberation can be a process of discovery - can take an existing situation and move it to a new plane of understanding and insight before an attempt is made to state what problems we ought to be trying to solve. (1978, pp. 63-64)

Therefore, it is inappropriate to place objectives at the beginning of the cycle.

The naturalistic model, then, begins further back in the development process than does the classical model. The stating of objectives is preceded by deliberation and the deliberation stems from the platform or system(s) of beliefs and values held by the developers. The stating of objectives is, in a sense, a late development of the platform.

Analysis of deliberation makes evident the actual processes of decision-making that occurred during development. By exposing these in this way, other people are enabled to analyze them and determine which data determined which decisions. This information can then be used to improve the decision-making processes of future development projects. Developers can at least be aware of possible pitfalls and take measures to avoid them.

By representing the final products as a series of decisions, the products are related directly back to the decisions that produced them, and to the deliberation that preceded the decisions themselves.

Another strength of the naturalistic model is its flexibility. Walker's purpose was to analyze the deliberative episodes in great depth, using his three-tiered System for Analyzing Curriculum Deliberation (SACD).

One intent of this study was to trace the Mentor issues over the entire course of the development of the project. The analysis used in this research involved only the bottom tier of the SACD, that of determining deliberative episodes.

While Walker's intent was not to show changes over time, his naturalistic model was able to be adapted to that purpose. (A fruitful research project might be to take the Mentor transcripts and analyze portions of the discourse using Walker's SACD.)

The key strength of this model is that it is descriptive, rather than prescriptive. The classical model makes decision-making in program development appear to be a straight-forward, logical, analytical process. It is not. It is messy and confused. Many factors and influences come into play along the way. There are no guarantees that the final products will end up looking anything like what was originally intended. This model accounts for all of this.

This study began with some general research questions. The naturalistic model was used as a means of portraying the Mentor Project data in a way that would provide some answers to these questions. The questions and their "answers" are as follows:

1. Upon what basis did the development committee begin its work?

Like the Kettering Project (Walker, 1975) and the Keele Project (Shipman, 1974), the development process did not begin with a clearly stated set of objectives. The Mentor development committee produced a proposal, which was taken to the ad hoc advisory committee for approval. The Proposal was in two sections, the first being devoted to a summary of pertinent research on in-service, a listing of practical constraints on the incorporation of all of the research findings into the plan for Mentor, a summary of two surveys of teachers' needs with regard to in-service, and a description of the implications of all of the above for the Mentor Project. The second section of the Proposal described the proposed format and content of the Mentor Project.

As with the Kettering Project, there was no argument about the platform because of the way in which persons were selected for the team.

> Those who were not enthusiastic about the approach described to them might pursue the matter no further, nor, if they did, were they likely to find a warm reception from the director or the rest of the staff. Eisner's talks and writings no doubt persuaded many who had not already formed strong opinions on the matters he spoke and wrote about. And in some minor matters individuals swallowed their reservations in order to get on with the work. (1975, p. 100)

The members of the Mentor development team were like-minded individuals, all in elementary social studies, all with many of the same views on teaching and learning. Consequently, the platform, as stated, was not discussed.

It was simply accepted. The only concerns ever expressed were editorial ones, such as use of punctuation and what portion of the American survey to include.

Curriculum theorists (Schwab, 1973; Reid, 1975) recommend that development committees be composed of members representing a variety of areas of expertise and experience. However, it seems that it is common practice to include like-minded individuals as development committee members, rather than incorporating a variety of skills, experiences, and even values (Shipman, 1974; Walker, 1975).

> The development was done by a small, homogeneous group of subject specialists with past teaching experience, but not by practising teachers, and with no significant involvement of students, school administrators, or laymen. (Walker, 1975, p. 99)

The reasons for this are no doubt based in practicalities. If the people who are asked to take on a project are based in a university, it is much easier to work with others in the same setting than it is to coordinate schedules with people outside the setting. Also, in the case of both Mentor and the Kettering Project, professors used the project as an opportunity for graduate students to apply some of the theory to which they had been exposed.

However, it is interesting to note that, in both cases, the theory regarding the composition of program development committees was ignored. In the case of Mentor, one tenet of the theory on in-service was also ignored. According to the literature, practising teachers should be involved in planning their own in-service programs.

While the Proposal document went through three drafts before being accepted by the ad hoc advisory committee, the first section was never changed. All the stakeholders - the development committee, ACCESS, and the ad hoc advisory committee - were willing to accept the rhetoric without argument. It was the translation into a practical plan of action that the ad hoc committee thought worthwhile to question.

> Tom - We seem to have talked a good game in our rationale. But when it comes down to carrying it through in the development of the thing . . .
>
> Mary - We abandoned that a long time ago.
>
> Ted - That was abandoned from about the second week.
>
> Tom - Okay.
>
> Mary - When you go back and listen to the tapes, that was abandoned. It's interesting that, I think the advisory committee, in a sense, accepted the rationale, in that they've never really changed it. But then they've directed all of their attention to the second part of the thing, which is how are you going to do this. And in dealing with - "how are you going to do this - this is where the practicalities, the realities, the perceptions of what you can do, have shaped how we're coming to this.
>
> Ted - So the rationale's sort of become just empty rhetoric.
>
> Mary - It's something that everybody can agree on, and like, you can send out, you know, anybody who is on that committee would agree with the rationale.

Tom - Okay.

Mary - So it legitimizes the . . .

(April 11, 1980)

There was little or no discussion even on the part of the developers as to what was to go into the first part of the Proposal. One of the developers simply took it home one night and wrote it. After that it was not questioned. The developers devoted their attention to the second part.

The creation of products began even before the final version of the second part of the proposal was accepted.

2. What were the components of the curriculum building process?

Walker found four episodes in deliberation. These were issues, where two or more sides of a problem are advocated; reports, when others in the group are briefed on situations about which one member has privileged information; brainstorms, when ideas are generated in a brisk fashion; and explications, when one member explains some point to the others.

All of the above were found in the Mentor deliberations. However, by no means most of the meeting time was spent in deliberation. Much of it was devoted to other pursuits.

Those that were identified in the Mentor transcripts were organization, when time was devoted to tasks intended to keep things running smoothly; presentation, when one or more members would offer something which they had written for consideration by other members; update, which involved a reminder by one member of what had been accomplished to date, and possibly, a listing of what had yet to be done; and invention, which involved the actual production of materials during meeting time.

In addition to the above, a social aspect to deliberation was discovered. Three plausibility structures were used to categorize this aspect of deliberation. Legitimations were used by the developers to justify or "legitimize" certain decisions, usually ones with which they were displeased. Nihilism, whereby "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115) was used as a means of 'letting off steam.' Appeals to significant others were again used to justify decisions. The developers' significant others seem to have been research in the areas of learning theory and in-service education for teachers.

3. How were decisions made during the development process?

As Walker points out, one might have "the impression that the rest of the curriculum making task could be little more than a logical deduction from platform beliefs" (1975, p. 107).

He gives two reasons why this is not the case. First, the platform is incomplete.

> One cannot anticipate all the working principles he will need. As the work progresses the need for principles of some unexpected kind will become acute and they will be devised and incorporated into the platform. (1975, p. 107)

Second, platform statements are not specific enough to apply directly to problems that arise. A situation could fall under several such principles. In the light of one principle, it might be a desirable situation, while in the light of another, not so desirable. Therefore, deliberation is required in order to reach a decision as to what is best in each situation by establishing a hierarchy or principles.

> A project with a sound, comprehensive, but as yet unused platform is in somewhat the same position as our legal system when a new law has been passed. The formulation and passage of the law is only the beginning of an often extensive set of procedents that must be established as that law is applied to particular cases. (1975, p. 108)

Walker says of the Kettering Project, "the answer to how platform became operating policy is simply this: they argued about it" (1975, p. 109).

A number of issues arose during the deliberation phase of the Mentor Project. The major ones were these:

- Was the in-service program to rely on a leader or was it to be capable of being used independently by participants?

- Where were the classroom demonstrations to take place and who was to teach them?

- Should an in-service with the intent of teaching about inquiry, use inquiry?

- Where did the role of the developers end and that of ACCESS begin?

- Was the material for the videotaped classroom examples to be obtained from Kanata Kits and Teaching Units (material developed by Alberta Education) or could it be obtained elsewhere?

- Were teachers to choose between two modules dealing with the same inquiry skill, according to their preferred teaching styles (teacher-directed or teacher-student shared decision-making) or were aspects of each teaching style to be in one module?

According to Walker, "to be constrained by circumstances is the curriculum designer's strongest possible justification, for then he has no genuine choice" (1971, p. 55) when making a decision.

In coming to a decision on each one of these issues the developers appealed to circumstances in the form of the ad hoc advisory committee. If the advisory committee reached a particular decision on an issue, then the developers had no choice. They had to follow the direction of the committee.

It would seem that the developers never really took "ownership" of their products. As one developer said later, "We never put down something that we believed in and then stood up for it. We never said, 'We will not do this.'" (April, 1981).

There were several reasons for this unwillingness to take "ownership" of the products.

The first is connected with the fact that the developers accepted a directive role for the advisory committee. In short order, the advisory committee was no longer acting in an "advisory" capacity. The relationship between this committee and the developers was very much a superordinate-subordinate one.

> We just snapped to it. When they said, "We want examples from the Teaching Units and Kanata Kits," we said, "Yes, sir, how many do you want?" (April 10, 1981)

It was also a defense against the criticism of this committee. It became very discouraging to have things go to them and come back to be revised again and again.

In retrospect, one of the developers commented, "I can remember saying, 'There's no point in polishing it and putting it into finished form because they'll just suggest all kinds of corrections anyway'" (April 10, 1981). On one or more occasions two of the developers sent products in this unfinished state to the advisory committee, only to have them come back approved as they were!)

Time was also a factor here. Three of the members of the development committee were graduate students with full-time course loads and assistantships. The fourth grad student was working as a counsellor in a school system half-time, as well as taking courses and carrying an assistantship. The other two members of the team were professors with full teaching loads. The Mentor Project was over and above all of the other commitments, which both ethically and practically had to take first priority. Taking "ownership" of the products could have involved a great deal of time, defending them at advisory committee meetings, etc.

A reference was made to this during discussion of the issue of whether the classroom demonstrations should follow one class through a unit from start to finish or whether a different classroom should be used for each episode.

> Tom - I think what we've got to do is get all five of us to go and talk with the committee. Get an equal number of people working from that point of view. Because we sure got talked down on that one last time.
>
> Brad - We did.
>
> (Aug. 27, 1980)

In fact, one of the grad students did attend two or three of the advisory committee meetings, but he was the exception. (Whether or not members of the advisory committee would have wanted all of the developers attending their meetings is another question.)

The developers were able to cope with the restrictions which were imposed upon them (or which they allowed to be imposed upon them) by the ad hoc committee through a number of devices.

Humour was one such device. Looking through the transcripts of the development committee tapes, one can see that humour was a common thread throughout the meetings. Much of the humour, too, occurred outside the meetings, such as this example.

"It's like World War I really. We're in the trenches and just poke our heads above the trench and smile and get a bayonet in the throat" (Mar. 12, 1981).

In another example the Mentor Project was likened to a tennis game. The grad students were depicted as ball boys. The professors were "off for coaching" but couldn't find the coach. The members of the advisory committee were depicted as serving balls at our throats and an individual on the advisory committee was crying "Foul," at every turn (Mar. 23, 1981).

As is the case in these two examples, much of the humour was directed against the advisory committee.

Another means of coping with this situation was through the use of nihilism, a means by which "alternative reality interpretations are given a negative status" (Werner, 1977, p. 115).

In many cases there was a degree of nihilism in the humour that was used, as in the above two examples.

In addition, nihilism was applied directly to the advisory committee, ACCESS, Alberta Education, the new social studies curriculum, and to the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units.

Not only was time a problem for the developers as individuals, in trying to cope with often frenetic schedules, but time seemed to be a problem for the project as a whole. There was very little time for reflection about what we were doing. No sooner was the Proposal written, than we were "hammering out" modules.

External events had a direct bearing on the need for haste in the project. The 1978 interim curriculum, which had originally been intended to be in place until 1982, was suddenly revised and appeared in final form in September of 1981. To assist in its implementation, $2.2 million was spent on hiring resource teachers to conduct in-service sessions. Mentor was now intended to be used as training material for this group of people, and secondly, as material for them to use in their in-service sessions with other teachers.

The never-ending revisions seem to be a common occurence in curriculum projects. Wooten, in his description of the School Mathematics Study Group, says that the "continuous writing and rewriting, discussion and criticism, suggesting and commenting was the very essence of SMSG production" (1965, p. 77).

It was certainly the essence of Mentor.

Of course, one difference between Mentor and this particular project, and others as well, is that in this project the writers came together in the summertime and spent their time working on the project exclusively. They were not hindered and harrassed by other commitments, so perhaps the continual revisions were not quite the burden that they were to the Mentor developers.

One unalterable fact about a Mentor development committee meeting was that one member would have to leave early to attend to another commitment, or that another would arrive late for the same reason.

Also, in the case of the SMSG project, the criticism came primarily from other developers. So, while someone might be judging your work today, you could be judging their's tomorrow. In the Mentor situation, it was a group of "outsiders" who did the criticizing. There was never any reciprocal exchange of products. This is perhaps why the developers became rather defensive about their work.

Shipman said:

> This was not a clear-cut, one-off operation, but an untidy affair, involving bargaining as much as abstract definition; a victim of more than one uneasy modification. (1974, p. 145)

Mentor was certainly a result of many an "uneasy modification," on the part of all of its stakeholders.

4. Are the products created by the development committee congruent with the basis from which they began their work?

The major difference between the intents expressed in the Proposal for the in-service program and what was actually developed lies in the extent to which teachers have a role in shaping their in-service experience.

In Draft #1 of the Proposal, teachers were to make a choice as to which one of four teaching patterns they wished to explore, on the basis of a self-awareness inventory and their own knowledge about themselves as teachers. In the third draft of the Proposal, the four teaching patterns: teacher presenter, learning centres, learning contracts, and group investigation, had been changed to modules based on the inquiry process in the curriculum guide, with the addition of three modules on evaluation and one on valuing. In each case, there were two modules from which to choose, one for a teacher who preferred a teacher-director type of teaching mode and one for teachers who preferred to share decision-making with students.

Teachers, then, could choose, not only a module on the stage of the inquiry model they were most interested in learning about, but one in their preferred teaching mode.

However, over the course of development, the two modes were collapsed into one module, thus removing even that element of choice.

> Tom - . . . the rationale came down pretty strong on the need to try to involve teachers in the planning of their own experience, and accepting some responsibility for thinking about themselves and how they work in their classroom and, then out of that reflection, making some conscious decisions about what they want to, to experience, to learn about. And it just seems like we're sort of backing away from that somehow. The choices left open to teachers, really now, we've only one - which of these modules might I pick up and go through? So their decision-making role in shaping their own experience is really not, there's not much left.
>
> (April 11, 1980)

The self-awareness inventory now bore little relation to the only choice that teachers had to make.

In the same way as the element of choice gradually diminished as time went on, so did teachers' input into the in-service experience itself.

In looking at Draft #2 of the Openers module, teachers were asked to generate a list of characteristics of an effective Opener, based on an experience with an Opener, earlier in the module. By Draft #3, they are given a list of characteristics and asked to check the ones which they consider to be most important.

Implications

I. Implications for Practice

Shipman and others have lamented the lack of "experience of the job . . . to be done to serve as a guide to new curriculum development teams to use" (Shipman, 1974, p. 64).

As more developers or observers of development teams record their experiences, hopefully new teams will be able to avoid some of the pitfalls encountered by previous projects.

A number of points, which may be of use to others, emerge from the data gathered over the course of the Mentor Project.

The Outset of the Project

1. One contract which covers the entire project is preferable to separate contracts for parts of the project. By agreeing to a contract at the outset of a project, developers are clear as to what the expectations are for their role. If expectations differ, then this is the time either to come to a compromise or to reach a decision that the parties will not be able to work together. It is much easier to abandon a project at this point, than later, when part of the project has been completed. It is difficult to negotiate when one has already undertaken certain development commitments,

and has both an interest and a stake in the success of the project. In the case of Mentor, two separate contracts were signed; one near the beginning of the project, and theother in June of 1980. When it came time to sign the second contract, the developers found that their role encompassed more than they had anticipated.

Another advantage of one contract is that it ensures the financial arrangements are set down in writing at the outset of the project. People's memories fade and even their understanding of arrangements at the time when they are made, can vary remarkably. If financial arrangements are taken care of at the outset, then they will not crop up later and cause negative feelings on the part of all parties involved. In the case of Mentor, the first contract covered a small piece of the total task and was for a very small sum of money. The developers and the other parties involved had widely different figures in mind, as to what had been originally agreed upon as the final total which they were to receive for their efforts. When it came time to sign the second contract, there were serious problems.

2. The context of a development committee and an ad hoc advisory committee seems a difficult one in which to work. If this, by necessity, is the situation, then the roles of each committee, and any individuals connected to, but not part of, the committee, should be made clear initially.

Developers then can make a decision as to whether or not they are prepared to work within the prescribed parameters.

3. Developers need to ensure at the outset of a project that the timelines are realistic. It is important that timelines allow for extensive pilotting and the possibility of extensive changes as a result. It is also important that developers have time to reflect on what they have done and where they are going. It might even be wise to consider secondment of the developers for a period of time, so that concentration on the project could be total.

4. Organizational matters, while seemingly of minor importance, do impinge upon the effectiveness of a project. Every project should have a permanent place to call its own. Preferably the "place" should be a locked room with plenty of storage space.

The Mentor Project did not have its own place for the first five months, and as a result, material was lost in transit and a great deal of time was spent prior to, and at the beginning of each meeting, in sorting through piles of papers picked up off desks and brought to the meeting place.

5. Educational program development is not for the weak in spirit. Developers need to be mentally prepared, at the outset of a project, for a stressful period in their lives.

> One cannot stress too strongly the emotional impact of the job, especially in the early stages. All of us experienced it as a 'shock to the system'. (Shipman, 1974, p. 136)

A developer needs to be determined, yet possess an ability to compromise. A developer needs to be intelligent, knowledgeable, and committed. A developer must have endless patience, a ready sense of humour, and a hard outer shell to withstand the 'slings and arrows' of pilot teachers and advisory committees.

6. Plan for inclusion of practising teachers on the development committee. The curriculum literature clearly points to the importance of practising teachers being members of development committees.

Shipman makes a distinction between

> (a) Teachers fully cooperating in the development from the start, including the defining of aims.
>
> (b) Teachers only helping a project to try out its materials and its suggested methods.
>
> (1974, p. 144)

The Mentor Project chose the second option (as did Shipman's Keele Project). Perhaps greater input from practising teachers during the development process would have made the program more acceptable to teachers when it came time to pilot.

During the Project

7. Be aware that many decisions take a great deal of time to reach. Be concerned about lengthy discourse only when it is trivial or repetitive.

8. Take the time to record the deliberations for future committees. Walker said, when beginning his research, that he "thought there must be a body of lore somewhere

that would enable curriculum makers to profit from the insights and mistakes of their predecessors" (1975, p. 92).

He soon discovered that this was not the case. Instead, he found what Schwab has referred to as a "virtual absence of record" (1975, p. viii) of the deliberations of development committees.

As more and more studies attempt to do this, there will be a picture built up of what educational program development is really like. It is only then that we can begin to build upon what has gone before.

9. Consider taping one or two meetings and then transcribing the tapes in order to study the language used. Ask how communication could be improved. Are some members of the committee dominating others? Is everyone given time to express opinions? Are people delineating their positions clearly, or are they making unwarranted assumptions that their meaning is understood?

10. Be aware that developers must tread a fine line between standing up for their own products and ideas and being open to the views of other stakeholders. This is not an easy task.

Shipman (1974) has probably done one of the most extensive studies available, portraying curriculum development and the roles of various stakeholders. He comes to the conclusion that program development is a process of "bargaining, negotiation and horsetrading" (1974, p. 43) between the parties involved. Perhaps this is the way it should be, with the final program a beneficiary of varied perspectives.

From a developer's point of view, this is not what happened with the Mentor Project. The mode became one of developers carrying their products to advisory committee meetings, where they were told how they were to be revised.

However, if developers wish to have a degree of autonomy, then they must exercise it. In an interview, a member of the ad hoc advisory committee stated that the developers had "allowed themselves" to become tied down to the use of the Kanata Kits and Teaching Units in the Mentor modules (April 6, 1981).

Until that point, we as developers, had considered ourselves as victims. But perhaps, victims are such because they 'allow themselves' to be victimized.

In a conversation long after the development of Mentor, two of the developers likened the development committee to a woman who is beaten by her husband. Instead of taking a stand, she complains to the neighbours of her harsh treatment, and then goes back for more (July 30, 1982). The analogy is apt, except that the developers complained to one another.

Connected to this is the aspect of "selling" things to other parties involved; in this case, the development team being the merchant and the ad hoc committee the shopper.

> Ted - But I suspect the committee will go for Number Three.

Susan - Then maybe we should present a strong argument for the other two.

Ted - I think we did. I think Tom did.

Susan - I do too.

Betty - You could sell that.

(Aug. 27, 1980)

Shipman (1972) refers to program development as a "busy marketplace" (p. 152). Perhaps the buying and selling should be reciprocal, rather than one party always doing the buying or rejecting and the other the selling.

Following the Project

Take time to evaluate the decision-making processes and to discuss ways in which practice could have been improved. What would we do differently another time? What implications can be drawn from our experience that might be of benefit to other developers?

II Implications for Further Research

Before we can judge the worth of contemporary practices, we must develop a thorough understanding of them.

Considerable reference has been made in this study to the dearth of research on the processes of program development. It should be noted that part of the reason for this is that not every curriculum development committee is amenable to having its deliberations recorded and made public. The members of the Mentor committee were somewhat unique in this regard.

This may have stemmed partly from the setting of the project and the backgrounds of the committee members. Research is, of course, a major reason for the existence of universities. If individuals at universities are going to use others as objects of research, then it seems only fair and reasonable that they, themselves, should be open to the same scrutiny. This is perhaps why the projects reported in the literature tend, with few exceptions, to be at universities, rather than at the school district level.

It is understandable that members of a development committee would be concerned about having their deliberations recorded for posterity. Remarks, presented out of context, sometimes do not convey the meaning intended. Sometimes statements are made, in the heat of the moment, tape recorder or not, that are regretted later. Also, almost anyone, no matter how well educated, appears somewhat incoherent when their words are put on paper exactly as they were uttered. The tendency to interrupt one another and to leave sentences unfinished, the long pauses, the "um's," and the "uh's," do not make individuals appear particularly articulate. Pseudonyms are a thin disguise at best, for those outsiders who know the committee members.

None of the developers expressed a concern about having language tidied up. These people were willing to let their words stand. By doing so, they allowed the researcher to capture the true flavour of oral conversation. It is unlikely that all development committee members would be as willing to let this happen.

With that proviso, there are a number of areas in which the naturalistic model could contribute to further research. Walker (1971, pp. 60-63) has identified five of these areas, each of which has been delineated below. Some of the questions listed are the same as, or have been based on, those Walker has suggested. Others fit into his categories, but suggest slightly different directions for study.

1. The model itself contains propositions that need to be tried.

Do developers, in fact, share a greater body of common beliefs than one would expect of groups of similar composition? Do members of a development committee, in fact, appeal to a platform, or common body of beliefs, when making decisions? Do development committees with similar platforms conduct similar deliberations and produce similar designs?

2. The model provides a conceptual basis for descriptive studies of curriculum development.

What kinds of statements comprise a typical platform? Are they statements of aim? Are they theoretical statements? What kinds of issues are common to deliberation? What proportion of deliberation time is commonly spent dealing with issues, and what proportion is devoted to organization, updates, presentations, explications, brainstorming, reports, and production? How many alternatives does a development group typically examine before coming to a decision? Does new information change decisions already made? What are the data sources commonly used in decision-making? Does decision-making commonly rest in the hands of one or two more powerful developers?

3. The model provides a conceptual basis for studies of the effectiveness of various design elements.

An important area which has received little research, is the problem of determining whether or not different design elements produce different results. In the case of an in-service program, examples of appropriate questions might be: Does group interaction result in a more effective program? What effect does building in a choice element for participants have on the perceived success of the program? Does group interaction in an in-service program result in the development of longterm support groups? How effective are support groups in facilitating change in the classroom?

4. The model could facilitate curriculum research by making it possible to formulate succinctly questions that have not received enough attention from curriculum specialists.

Walker points out that a model has an effect in shaping the kinds of questions that are asked. For instance, the classical model, by its nature, has suggested studies into how to formulate objectives most effectively. The naturalistic model encourages studies in other areas.

Which grounds for justification are the most appropriate? (This involves studying the logical and empirical foundations of the process of justifying decisions.) Decisions are justified by many different means. Developers can go back to platform principles. They can incite an outside constraint as determining their decision. They can cite information which they have gathered, pertinent to the data at hand.

What is the most effective order in which to make decisions? By making decisions with widespread significance early in the development process, the scope of further decisions can be so reduced that many options are cut off before they can be considered. We need to study the consequences of looking at various kinds of questions at different points in deliberation.

5. The model should help to identify problems from other fields whose solution would facilitate curriculum development.

The field of psychology is directly related to the study of program development. What is the optimum size for a group which has the task of designing an educational program? Is a democratic model the most effective in terms of decision-making? What skills should members of the committee possess? What should their backgrounds be? How do members of a development committee influence one another? What are the paths of influence in a particular development committee?

The purpose of this study was "to map an unfamiliar terrain" (Doyle & Ponder, 1976, p. 4). We have very little knowledge about the processes involved in the development of educational programs. As we become more familiar with the ways in which educational programs are actually developed, we will be able to make informed decisions about how they should be developed.

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